PEDAGOGIES AND POWER RELATIONS IN THAI ENGLISH FOREIGN LANGUAGE WRITING CLASSROOMS: A CRITICAL ETHNOGRAPHY

Kuanhathai Kuadnok

MEd TEFL (CMU)
BEd Education (CMRU)

Principal Supervisor: Associate Professor Kathy Mills

Associate Supervisor: Dr Radha Iyer

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Faculty of Education

Queensland University of Technology

2017

Keywords

power relations, pedagogy, EFL writing, disciplinary power, pastoral power, bio-power, governmentality, coercive power, reward power, critical ethnography, Foucault, Carspecken

Abstract

Using critical applied linguistics, and drawing on the concept of power as theorised by Foucault, this study examines issues of power and pedagogical practices that influence the teaching of writing to Thai English as a Foreign Language (EFL) primary students.

The study developed the theoretical framework using the lens of Foucault's notions of power (1977-2002) and EFL teaching approaches to investigate Thai EFL teachers teaching writing. Foucault's work on power relations was reviewed: techniques of disciplinary power, conceptions of docile bodies, pastoral power, and bio-power, and particularly, an interpretation of Foucault's account of the Panopticon.

Carspecken's (1996) critical ethnographic approach was adopted to gather data involving semi-structured interviews of teachers, observational field notes, audio-recording, video recording students' group activity, and students' writing samples. This ethnographic study was carried out over seven weeks with three classes (4^{th}, $5^{th}$and 6^{th} Grades) in a public primary school in Thailand. Reconstructive data analysis procedures involved interactive power analysis and thematic analysis of the interactions: the Power theme and the Pedagogic theme. Carspecken's (1996) typology of interactive power – normative, coercive, interactively established contracts, and charm was also employed in the discussion of the findings, since these forms of power were found in the interactions between teachers and students in the social space of the classroom.

The findings of this study have shown the significance of the relations between power exercised in didactic pedagogies and facilitating teaching. Explicit power circulated in classroom space has demonstrated that teachers exhibited multiple forms of power in their pedagogies. Disciplinary power and its techniques, called techniques of training (Foucault, 1977), hierarchical observation, normalising judgement, and examination, were exercised in all classes.

Disciplinary power within EFL classrooms was observed in the teachers' implementation of a teacher-centred approach enabled the teachers to exert the 'teacher's gaze' in a hierarchical observation over the class and individuals. In this study, how teachers implement English writing pedagogies relates to certain types of power, which are exercised in the school and classroom.

Teacher-student interaction generates particular sorts of power while teaching pedagogies are carried out. Examining pedagogical practices can offer new perspectives about the teacher, the student, and the power relationships constructed during their interactions in particular EFL contexts. Due to the international spread of English in the 21st century, the findings in this study will benefit future research undertaken into pedagogies implemented and power relations exercised in various schooling contexts. This study reveals the issues of power and pedagogical practice that influence the teaching of writing to Thai EFL students.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

List of Abbreviations

A.D.	=	Anno Domini, or After Christ (as appears in A.D. 2008)
AEC	=	ASEAN Economic Community
ASEAN	=	Association of South East Asian Nations
ATIGA	=	ASEAN Trade in Goods Agreement
B.E.	=	Buddhist Era (as appears in B.E. 2551)
CLT	=	Communicative Language Teaching
EFL	=	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	=	English as a Second Language
ELT	=	English Language Teaching
ELL	=	English Language Learners
ICT	=	Information and Communication Technologies
L1	=	Language One
L2	=	Language Two
MOE	=	Ministry of Education
NEA	=	National Education Act
NEC	=	National Education Curriculum
OBEC	=	Office of Basic Education Commission
O-NET	=	Ordinary National Education Test

Statement of Original Authorship

The work contained in this thesis has not been previously submitted to meet requirements for an award at this or any other higher education institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made.

Signature:

Date: 26 April 2017

Acknowledgements

I am grateful to the Research Student Centre, Queensland University of Technology for providing me with a scholarship and support for my postgraduate studies.

I also gratefully appreciate Chiang Mai Rajabhat University, for granting me financial support and permission to pursue my postgraduate studies. I offer my thankful appreciation for my colleagues at the Western Languages Department, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, at Chiang Mai Rajabhat University.

This thesis could not have been completed without assistance, encouragement and support from my supervisors, Associate Professor Kathy A. Mills and Dr Radha Iyer, who have provided me with professional supervision, guidance, recommendations, support, and patience during this PhD journey.

I would like to express my sincere appreciation to the participating primary school, the school principal, the teachers and their students. Their friendly co-operation yielded invaluable findings in the study.

I wish to express special sincere thanks to Adjunct Professor in Higher Education Yoni Ryan for her kind advice on appropriate English language in my thesis and for her final editing of my thesis.

Special thanks also go to Dr Martin Reese and Dr Emma Caukill in assistance with the academic language program to support HDR students.

In the process of submission of my thesis, I would like to thank Eliette Webb from the Office of Education, and

I would like to express my gratitude to Professor Emeritus Acram Taji for her support.

I would like to express deep thanks to my beloved family for their encouragement, understanding, and confidence in me during the past four years in Australia.

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This research investigates the pedagogies and power relations that are involved in the teaching of writing to English Foreign Language (EFL) Learners at the primary school level in Thailand. EFL refers to the teaching and learning of English in countries where English is not an official language. The term EFL is used in non-English speaking countries where "English has no special status or internal function, and where its communicative use is of low priority" (Nayar, 1997, p. 29). One of the key problems addressed in this research is the current status of teaching and learning English in Thailand – reliance on a limited repertoire of pedagogies that are not based on contemporary research, and that are dictated by national educational policies. An outcome of the findings will be to make a theoretical contribution to understanding how power operates in relation to EFL writing pedagogies at the primary school level, with implications for the adoption of multi-strategy approaches to teaching writing, whilst promoting English communicative competence in EFL classroom contexts.

This chapter outlines the background to the research problem, which is timely due to global and national imperatives for the study of EFL education (section 1.1) and the research question concerning teachers' pedagogical practices and power relations (section 1.2). Definitions of key terms used in this research are provided in section 1.3, which were selected because of their importance to the research question, (power, pedagogy, and EFL writing). Section 1.4 describes the significance of global issues concerning the spread of English literacy, and the significance of this research for teaching English in the Thai context. Section 1.5 focuses on teaching and learning

English as a foreign language in Thailand. Section 1.6 includes an outline of the remaining chapters of the thesis, and section 1.7 concludes the chapter.

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

As noted by Baker (2016), with the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) Economic Community having been initiated in 2015, there has been an increased focus on English proficiency in the region, especially in Thailand. English has been considered important in Thailand, as many parents believe that knowledge of English can give their children better chances for participation in the workforce and hope for a better standard of living, yet there is little by way of communicative proficiency in Thailand (Baker, 2016; Baker, 2012; Forman, 2008; Wiriyachittra, 2002). Moreover, little attention is paid to developing students' writing ability, since it is not assessed in the national multiple choice test English examination (Wongsothorn, 2001). Instead, communicative competence in English, such as listening and speaking skills, are often the focus of teaching. This is because when the teachers of English implement a communicative language teaching approach in their classroom (Khanarat & Nomura, 2008; Watson-Todd, Chaiyasuk & Tantisawatrat, 2008), they mainly focus on speaking and listening skills at the primary school level (Nomnian, 2013). The present study investigates some pedagogical implications and relations of power regarding teaching English writing in a primary classroom.

With the challenge of globalisation, and rapid economic development in ASEAN nations, the Thai education system is facing radical transformations in its political, economic and educational structures. The impact has been that English language has appeared to be a bridge across many frontiers in international communication, including in Thailand (Kirkpatrick, 2012). English is the language of

commerce and communication, according to the 2015 ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) policy; hence, Thailand needs its people to be fluent in English (Baker, 2012).

Due to the spread of English, the goals of English education in non-English speaking Asian countries have recently experienced major changes (Baker, 2016; Baker, 2012; Honna, 2005; Ke, 2015; Pennycook, 2010). English has become the dominant international language in many fields of development, such as commerce and trade, research, science technology, sport and tourism (Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 2006; Xue & Zue, 2013). English is also used with increasing frequency in international communication (Pennycook, 2007; Lowenberg, 2002). Most first-hand information for many of these areas is available only in English (Chen, 2012). English is clearly important both in education and in career development. Thus, these factors make English teaching significant.

Academics, predominantly from English-speaking countries, such as the United States of America, the United Kingdom, and Australia, were officially consulted to shape the English syllabus and curriculum for use in Thai schools (Dueraman, 2012; Kongpetch, 2006; Saengboon, 2010). This is problematic because for Thai, English is a foreign language and therefore most students come to school with little or no prior knowledge of or oral language skills in English. At the primary level, English language learning emphasises the rudimentary elements of English, such as vocabulary, spelling and short phrases. Thai primary students study English for three to four periods per week (one period is of 50 minutes), and without specific classes for practising writing (Punthumasen, 2007). It cannot be assumed that pedagogies that work for native speakers of English in Western educational systems

can be superimposed on the Thai cultural, social, political and educational context, with the same outcomes.

As noted in Darasawang and Watson-Todd (2012), although "English is used only as a foreign language in Thailand, it has played an important role in Thai education for more than a century" (p. 208). Several factors, which are involved in Teaching English as a foreign language, include which language skills to teach and how, where the language will be used, the learning environment, the selection of content and materials, and the development of assessment criteria (Graddol, 2006). These issues have long been of concern in the Thai educational system since English language teaching began in Thailand (Biyaem, 1997; Chulalongkorn University Language Centre, 2000). English is a compulsory subject in every school (Choomthong, 2014, p. 45), with the ultimate goal for students to be able to use the language communicatively, based on the Basic Education Core Curriculum (OBEC, 2008).

However, the implementation of English writing pedagogies at the primary school level is challenging in terms of teaching methods and learning activities, and also in relation to forms of power which are exercised in EFL classrooms. Only one study about English writing pedagogies at the primary school level was found in the literature review. It was conducted by Prasongsook (2010); three teaching units using different methods within a communicative approach were developed. A unit of concentrated language encounters using computer-based language activities (CLE+COBLA) and four EFL teachers' implementations of effective English teaching at the primary level in Thailand were included in Prasongsook's study.

This present research is significant because there is currently no specific guidance for teachers of English in Thailand about the pedagogies for teaching

writing within the Thai context at the primary or elementary schooling level (Kongpetch, 2003). Further, there are no studies that have examined how power impacts on the teaching of writing pedagogies at a primary schooling level. Research into power relations and pedagogies found in the international literature argues that pedagogies and practices in language education need to consider issues of power and stakeholders (Garcia, 2014). A teacher as 'a subject' of educational policy may find it difficult to comprehend the national curriculum and also difficult to implement it. For example, in the Thai context, Choomthong (2014, p. 46) interprets Fitzpatrick (2011), noting that "a group of Thai teachers of English failed" to conceptualise the English language policy. There was mismatch between the goals of the policy and what actually happens in the classroom, especially in relation to teachers' employment of the communicative approach. Fitzpatrick (2011) further noted that the consequence of mis-conceptualisations of the policy was that Thai students believed that the purpose of learning the English language was solely to pass the national exam. As will be argued in Chapter 3, the power inherent in different pedagogical practices affect student learning. Clearly then, research that investigates pedagogies and the power relations inherent within them, is important in furthering the success of government policy in respect to English language teaching in Thailand.

1.2 THE RESEARCH QUESTION AND FOCUS OF THE RESEARCH

This research aims to investigate the multiple forms of English pedagogies in EFL classrooms in Thailand, with a particular focus on English writing instruction and issues of power that operate in the application of certain pedagogies. It will specifically examine power relations associated with EFL pedagogies that are both observed in classrooms, and that are contextualised in relation to the international

literature. In particular, it will examine the influence of power on the curriculum policies and enactment of teaching of EFL at a primary school level. The research question that will be addressed is:

"How is power implicated in EFL writing pedagogies in Thai primary classrooms?"

Since English language teaching in Thailand has adopted theories from the West, EFL writing theories were also derived from theories on writing in English language learning. The application of these theories is yet to be explored, particularly in Thai EFL contexts (Dueraman, 2012). First language (Language One – L1) means a dominant language used to communicate officially as the *lingua franca*. Thai is a mother-tongue language and the official language in Thailand; English is viewed as a foreign language (Wongsothorn, 2001). English has been taught in Thailand since 1967 as a foreign language (Baker, 2012; Forman, 2005; Glass, 2008; Wongsothorn et al., 2003) (see section 1.5). In this thesis, L1 is defined as English language as a mother language in English-speaking countries and former English colonies.

Since the teaching of writing has been overlooked in Thai EFL teaching compared with other skills, little EFL writing research has been conducted. One finding is that writing in English seems to be a significant problem for most Thai students (Baker, 2008; Maskhao, 2002; Sakontawut, 2003). Hence, there is a need to understand whether the current L1 writing instruction in English speaking countries is effective or beneficial to Thai students, and if there are ways to strengthen current practice. This research will explore Thai teachers' writing pedagogies used in primary classrooms with contemporary Western writing approaches, while taking into account how power relations operate in the Thai educational context.

Teaching EFL writing skills to students is a very challenging task for teachers because developing these skills is time-consuming and requires continued academic training (Silva, 1993). In addition, narrowing writing approaches to focus on only one or two dimensions of language learning, such as spelling, vocabulary, grammar or essay writing is not appropriate, since the weaknesses of each writing approach tends to impede students' writing development in other areas, such as the learning of grammar at the expense of vocabulary, or the learning of essay writing at the expense of grammar (Chayarathee & Waugh, 2006).

It is important to investigate teachers' implementation of different pedagogies in EFL classrooms and power relations that are constituted in those pedagogies. Foucault (1977) argues that the exercise of power constantly contributes to the larger discourse of any social group. The findings from the present study will identify the pedagogies and power relations that influence EFL classrooms, and provide recommendations for the implementation of writing pedagogies in the Thai primary schooling context. It is impossible to use a 'one-size-fits-all' pedagogy, and teachers in Thailand need to adapt different pedagogies for teaching English to different groups of English language learners. Ethnographic research was used in this thesis to investigate the power relations and pedagogies that influence the teaching of EFL writing in primary classrooms in Thailand, following a Foucauldian view of power (Foucault, 1982). A Foucauldian view of power is widely cited, and is critically acclaimed in the international education research (Gallagher, 2010, 2011; Gore, 1995, 2002; Hanaki, 2007; Luke, 1992; Maynard, 2007; McLeod & Lin, 2010; Pike, 2008; Ruan & Ma, 2013; Wright, 2000). It is also consistent with the use of critical ethnography (Carspecken, 1996; Pane, 2009; Pane et al., 2014) in this research, outlined in Chapter 4.

New literacy studies, or sociocultural literacy studies, understand literacies as sociocultural practices, for example, Gee (1996) noted that reading and writing can only be understood in the context of the social, cultural, political, economic, and historical practices to which they are integral, and of which they are a part. "The relationship between human practices and the production, distribution, and exchange of meanings" (Knobel & Lankshear, 2007, p. 2), for example, is a key idea here – that is teacher and student interactions. Street (1995) argues that within contexts of social practices, including classroom teaching as a site for research, language gives meaning to contexts and, dialectically, vice versa. Thus, he concludes that no reading or writing in any meaningful sense of these terms is outside of social practices, or discourses. Investigating the relations of power and writing pedagogies needs to be done through examining social relations in the classroom setting.

Sociocultural perspectives of literacy and learning provide a powerful basis for understanding the ideological nature of literacy practices. Language is not seen as an autonomous, ideological benign set of universal skills, but varies across diverse communities of practice (Mills, 2005). Sociocultural perspectives have become "increasingly influential in shaping learning approaches beyond school classrooms" (Knobel & Lankshear, 2007, p. 2), such as out-of-school literacy practices, and are exemplified by models of learning derived from work in situated cognition (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011). Warschauer (1997) argues that literacy in foreign language teaching has long been conceptualised as basic skills of coding and decoding (Luke, 1995). A sociocultural approach to literacy does not deny the importance of coding and decoding text, but places that particular skill in the context of socially literate practices (Luke, 1995; Street, 2001).

Sociocultural theory in literacy provides theoretical scope and explanatory power, enabling a "basis for framing, understanding, and addressing some of the most important literacy education issues" (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011). Using critical applied linguistics as theorised by Street (1995), and drawing on the concept of power and governmentality as theorised by Foucault (1977), this research examines how issues of power and pedagogical practices influence the teaching of writing to Thai EFL students at the primary school level.

Theoretical Framework

This study draws on sociocultural perspectives of literacy and uses Foucauldian notions of power and governmentality as the theoretical framework. Drawing on the social understanding of power, Foucauldian perspectives on education (Foucault, 1982) are interpreted to account for how the power of L1 writing pedagogies of the dominant English-speaking countries may operate in the teaching of EFL writing pedagogies and how these are enacted in classrooms. Because EFL writing pedagogies are based on L1 writing pedagogies, there are issues of social power which influence the application of L1 pedagogies to writing pedagogies, particularly in Thai EFL contexts.

According to Foucault (1977), power is not fundamentally something that institutions possess and use oppressively in contradiction of individuals and groups. Instead, power, as Foucault discusses, is seldom one-sided, which means teachers in the school are caught up in, and subjected to its operations, just as much as students are subjected to the power of the teacher (Foucault, 1987). Accordingly, Balan (2010) interprets Foucault (1977), noting power as "the plain oppression of the powerless by the powerful", and examines "how it operates in day-to-day interactions between people and institutions" (p. 37), or as Foucault (1980) states, as

"a set of relations" (p. 198). In other words, Foucault's version of power views most aspects of real life situations where one could influence others in any social action (Foucault, 1982). Accordingly, principles of Foucault's work on power are adopted for the purposes of this research study.

Governmentality operates at the institutional level through EFL education in Thailand, by dictating a particular approach to language learning and at the teaching level that specifies how the learning of English should be undertaken. As an "ensemble formed by institutions, procedures, analyses and reflections, calculations, and tactics" (Foucault, 1982, p. 20), governmentality is the alignment of language policies with the knowledge being produced in classrooms. Therefore, in this study, an examination of governmentality enables us to comprehend how the practices of teachers are often dictated by policies and are translated into knowledge of teaching and learning.

It is most likely that when the widely spread Western forms of pedagogy and their impact on teaching English in Thailand are considered, power relations will be involved. However, other important factors need to be considered, such as the social system and power relations at the macro level. This is explained in Carspecken's work (1996), which conceptualises the relationship between observed social actions tied to power and inherent in the society. As such, this qualitative research will examine observed interactions of power to determine what kinds of power are at work in Thai EFL contexts, and their observable influences on classroom actors (Carspecken, 1996).

Drawing on a Foucauldian analysis of power and governmentality to analyse the teaching of English writing in Thai primary schooling is a crucial element of this research. The framework of this research will be underpinned by the analysis of

power relations in pedagogy that is often borrowed from L1 contexts, and transposed to the Thai curriculum. This research will analyse how social power operates in a Thai primary classroom. This is useful for understanding power relations that operate in Thai contexts of English teaching pedagogies, rather than viewing pedagogies as ideologically benign, and devoid of the influences of power. While Foucault focuses on how power is exercised, Carspecken is concerned with who holds what forms of power in society. However, combining Carspecken's and Foucault's theories of power will be brought for analysing power relations both subtle and obvious ways as needed in the data analysis.

1.3 DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

The definitions of key terms used in the research question are provided below. These key terms are related to the context and aims of the thesis, and are important for understanding the research question and theory that has shaped the direction of the thesis. They are also important terms in the relevant literature applied in discussion throughout the thesis.

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) This term refers to teaching and learning English in a country where English is not an official language or is not used in daily life. English in Thailand is not a native or official language. According to Laopongharn and Sercombe (2009), "English is seen as a foreign language (EFL) rather than a second language (ESL), partly because Thailand has never been under colonial rule" (p. 59), specifically British rule. Nevertheless, English is taught in schools, mostly from primary school level and continues through post-secondary schooling. The term is used throughout this study to refer to English taught in a country where English is not used outside the classroom as a native or an official language.

Due to the global significance of English language as a means of communication, English Language Teaching (ELT) in Thailand was developed through Thai policy reform in 1999. As noted by Cheewakaroon (2011), as a result of the Asian economic crisis and the new constitution of 1997, the Thai government enforced various strategies and educational policies in order to promote economic recovery. The EFL literature is used throughout the thesis following theorists Crystal, Canagarajah, and Pennycook.

English as a Second Language (ESL) This term refers to all language skills and pedagogies designed for L2 learners in countries where English is an official language (e.g. India, the Philippines). In many countries, English is used as a second language or an official language. English in these countries is used as a medium for teaching and learning in schools, for tourism (Watson-Todd, 2006), and as a trade language. In this study, the EFL literature is used

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study aims to investigate pedagogies used to teach English writing to EFL primary students in Thailand, specifically examining teachers' implementation of the pedagogies, and theorising those in relation to pedagogies used to teach English writing to ESL students in countries in which English is a national language. Power will be also examined, because as Street (2006) explains, literacy is about power, and involves assumptions about how one particular set of ideas and conceptions derived from one cultural group influences another group. In particular, this study will highlight the influence of the Western approach on educational policy in the Thai National curriculum, the *Basic Education Core Curriculum* (2008).

In addition, Glass (2008) reports that curriculum policy, the literature, and some research within the country suggest an increasing emphasis and the need for

English in Thailand, including writing (Kongpetch, 2003; Krisnachinda, 2011; Wiriyachittra, 2002). Moreover, a study of English in Thailand is crucial because the topic has been largely neglected in the published literature (Glass, 2008). To the present time, there have been few discussions of the role of English in Thailand in relation to the role of cultural awareness, teaching EFL in Thailand, and the implications of English as a *Lingua Franca* in Thailand (Baker, 2008; 2012; Foley, 2005; Forman, 2005). Burns (2005) reported on the teaching of English in countries that became the subject of articles published in *World Englishes* and *English Today* from 1998-2001, except for Thailand. The countries where research has been carried out include South Korea (Song, 1998), Malaysia (Gill, 1999; Rajadurai, 2004), Singapore (Rubdy, 2001), and Hong Kong (Ho, 2000).

As mentioned above, this study will not only answer the research question, but will provide recommendations for those interested in doing research of L2 writing in the future. This study will potentially contribute to new knowledge regarding English writing instruction, taking into account the social power implicated in the pedagogies circulating in non-native English speaking countries that are imposed on the Thai context without interrogation or critique.

A critical ethnographic approach was employed for this present study. By adopting Carspecken's (1996) methods of data analysis, primary records were reconstructed and dialogical data was crosschecked with participants, to describe system relations. As the research question indicates, the investigation was concerned with writing pedagogies implemented by teachers, and power relations affecting Thai EFL primary school teaching. Issues regarding power relations in English writing pedagogies and the education system were also investigated. In terms of power,

Foucault's (e.g. 1977; 1984; 1990; 2000) theories of power relations were used to develop this study's theoretical framework.

Carspecken's methodology was chosen for this study for several reasons. Firstly, a five-stage methodology enables the researcher to uncover social actions through the use of theories, and also to describe the relations of the data analysis by reconstruction of meaning and conceptualisation of social systems (Carspecken, 1996). The researcher argue here that Carspecken's five stages of critical ethnography is the most appropriate method, allowing a researcher to participate in the real context of an educational institution and to gain insight into the research data in order to explain system relations.

The research was conducted in a primary public school in Thailand as the EFL context. Recent research and documents about teaching writing were analysed to find current practices evident in teaching ESL writing in non-Western contexts. The classroom setting in Thailand is composed of several ethnic groups in a public primary school located in a rural area in Chiang Mai. It was initially selected because it has a diversity of cultural, socio-economic different backgrounds typical in Thai primary schools. The data were collected and examined using multiple sources of evidence, including: teacher participants in classroom observations, field notes, video recording, a semi-structured interview with the teachers, collection of students' writing work samples, and teachers' curriculum and educational policy documents.

1.5 ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN THAILAND

The importance of English in Thai history, and in this research, is undisputed. In the history of Thai foreign language education, as cited in Wongsothorn (2001, 2003), English has been the most important foreign language, and has also been described as "the essence of being an educated and cultured Thai" (p.8). In addition,

in the new 2001 national Education Curriculum, English is the only foreign language compulsory for 12 years of basic education and required as a fundamental subject in the first year of the tertiary level. Because the revised proficiency-based curriculum emphasises the development of students' language proficiency, English, which is studied as a compulsory subject, is now seen as "an important tool for communication, education, seeking knowledge, livelihood and creating understanding of cultures and visions of the world community" (Ministry of Education, 2001, p. 14). Many EFL learners are required to study English, as part of academic requirements in their school systems (Sawir, 2005). Most Asian governments have introduced English as a compulsory subject at an early stage of schooling (Wongsothorn, Hiranburana, & Chinnawongs, 2003). Despite this, and even with years of grammar and vocabulary drills (Kongkerd, 2013), students often need assistance with listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Baker (2012) states that English in Thailand has been growing in importance, though the spread of English is obviously different between urban and rural communities. Crucial factors, such as a lack of resources for English language teaching and the low proficiency levels of many teachers and students, need to be explored. These are currently neglected aspects of the Thai education system that were investigated in this study to improve English writing teaching in Thailand.

This research relates to all strands of the Thai National English curriculum. In Thailand, English content is divided into four aspects in respect to functions of language usage. "Language for communication" focuses on using English for interpersonal communication, expressing and exchanging data. "Language and culture" focuses on the suitability of language usage and cultural circumstances of Thai and native speakers. "Language and connections with other content areas" aims

to enable learners to use English for seeking knowledge across other subject disciplines. "Language and relationship with community and the world" is the use of English for global communication, learning and exchanging information worldwide (Ministry of Education, 2008, p. 19).

Despite the value placed on the learning of English in Thailand's educational policy, students have a restricted number of English classes, typically "twice a week or four hours per week in a formal primary classroom" (Wongsothorn, 2000, p.314). This may contribute to the problem that many Thai students still lack English knowledge and the ability to communicate in English (Wiriyachittra, 2002). A further reason could be that traditional didactic teaching is still the main approach in the Thai EFL context, according to Baker (2008). English lessons in Thai schools are mostly textbook-based with a focus on grammar structures, vocabulary, and reading and recitation, with little attention to speaking and writing skill development.

It is argued by Foley (2005), Baker (2008), and Dueraman (2012) that identifying best practice in Thai classrooms is a complex task. This is because there are many different factors affecting English pedagogy, such as cultural classroom atmosphere, teaching materials and students. Moreover, students' socio-economic and ethnic backgrounds are another factor to consider, because students in many suburban schools in Thailand are composed of locals and minority groups, such as hill tribes (e.g. Karen, Hmong, and Yao) and immigrants (e.g. Myanmar and Cambodian), each of whom brings a different home language to the classroom. Therefore, teachers need to consider which writing pedagogies can develop effective student writing practices and performance across all these groups (Perry, 1998).

English education is important in Thailand. Nevertheless, there are a number of outstanding problems. The over-emphasis on grammar, vocabulary, and reading at

the neglect of skills in writing, listening and speaking is one of those major problems (Wiriyachittra, 2002). The Ministry of Education (OBEC, 2008) dictates that at primary school level, English teachers have to develop approaches or methods appropriate for students who come from different backgrounds and have different proficiencies in English (p. 29). The teaching of communicative skills that include all four language arts – listening, speaking, reading and writing – is becoming an urgent requirement in all levels of education.

English language teaching in Thailand

The focus on Thailand in this study is timely because currently, Thailand is a member of the ASEAN economic community (Stroupe & Kimura, 2015) and follows the ASEAN Trade in Goods Agreement (ATIGA, 2007). Stroupe and Kimura (2015) further explain that, in order to meet the demands of both global and ASEAN economies, the Thai government has launched new initiatives in all domains of the educational system, including curriculum development, materials, and teaching techniques. Thailand is promoting a change to more active learning strategies. However, Thai EFL teachers still tend to use the same passive strategies that focus on textbook-based grammar and translation methods (Maskhao, 2002).

Crystal (2003) points out that English has become more global because of its role within international organisations; however, other factors have helped it become the global language, such as the political, military, and economic influences of the United States (p. 56). Crystal (2003) further notes that the influence of American culture, such as movies, television, and various genres of music has played a crucial role in introducing people to the English language. Graddol (2006) also mentions that at present 90 per cent of internet hosts are based in English speaking countries. It is

estimated that the US and other English speaking countries will continue to dominate language in the electronic communications realm (p. 60).

For a successful change to take place in EFL classrooms in Thailand, Thai teachers of English are required to be trained to apply active learning strategies in the most effective way (Khuvasanond, 2013; Wongsothorn, 2001). Furthermore, it is suggested that teachers who are trained to use active learning strategies learn and practise being more familiar at using these strategies in their classroom so as to "create a more desirable environment for the students" (Wongsothorn, 2001). In their classroom practice, teachers should provide useful and available resources of learning to lead to proficient writing outcomes. Therefore, under the influence of globalisation, in which the circulation of texts across national borders increases the need to communicate effectively in English (Crystal, 2003), it is necessary for ELLs (English Language Learners) to develop English writing skills. Hence, the emphasis in this study is on writing skills in particular.

Currently, the teaching of writing in Thailand is dominated by a process-based approach, a product-based approach and a genre-based approach. A number of studies using these three approaches have been conducted at the secondary and tertiary levels (e.g. Dueraman, 2012; Kongpetch, 2003; Lertpanyanuch, 2010; Toh, 2000; Wongnititam, 2008). However, there are few specific research studies on EFL writing with primary students. As a result of the process-based approach, teachers of writing need to incorporate the insights of several approaches, such as giving attention to product, process, and genre, when teaching Thai students. The strengths of each approach can be complementary if applied to suit students' writing skill development. The approaches are summarised here for the purpose of establishing

the context of writing pedagogies encouraged in Thai education, but are further elaborated in Chapter 2: Literature Review.

The process approach focuses on how a text is written, as well as the final outcome or text. As noted by Hyland (2003), process approaches have "a major impact on understanding the nature of writing and the way writing is taught" (p. 17). Therefore, this approach focuses on "the importance of a recursive procedure of pre-writing, drafting, evaluating and revising" (Al-Khasawneh, 2010, p.7).

The product approach primarily emphasises sentence structures as a support for grammar in EFL writing classes. Silva (1990) stated that writing was used in order to highlight form, syntax, and rhetorical drills. After the mid-1960s, the product approach began to focus on the logical construction and arrangement of discourse forms, in addition to maintaining its previous emphasis on paragraph models, grammar and usage rules, and vocabulary development. Dhanarattigannon (2008) observed that in applying the product approach to teaching writing, teachers emphasise forms or grammatical structures, and view writing as a part of grammar instruction.

The genre-based approach is used to teach writing through a particular text type for a particular social purpose, and for specific audiences of readers (Halliday, 1975, cited in Mills, 2007). In this approach, Hyland (2003) notes that students are given an explanation of linguistic and rhetorical features first. Through explicit understanding of linguistic components and rhetorical patterns, students can learn how texts are structured and how grammar and vocabulary are combined to create meaning (Hyland, 2007; Myles, 2002). Then students realise that different texts have different purposes, and thus a different top-level structure or organisation of the text. This knowledge is a powerful tool through which students learn social rules to follow

when they write. The genre-based approach presents linguistic and rhetorical forms in an integrated way within a context, because writing occurs in particular cultural and social contexts.

English classrooms in Thailand

In Thailand, the government has long realised the importance of the English language as a major core subject in schools, and it has been a compulsory subject at varying levels for several decades (Wongsothorn, 2002; UNESCO, 2013). This is partly due to the rapidly increasing use of English through media and the internet to communicate worldwide. Since 2005, schools have been encouraged to establish bilingual departments where the core subjects are taught in English, and to offer intensive English language programmes (Darasawang, 2007; Wiriyachitra, 2002; UNESCO, 2013). Accordingly, the curriculum encourages schools to design their own English curriculum.

The current Thai education system stems from the reforms set by the 1999 National Education Act (NEA, 1999), which implemented new organisational structures, promoted the decentralisation of administration, and called for innovative learner-centred teaching practices (Ministry of Education, 2013). Significantly, educational reform in English language teaching emphasises learner-centred and communicative approaches (OBEC, 2008).

Therefore, Thai EFL teachers need to change "from tellers to facilitators, and from material users to teaching material 'creators' in order to promote learners' constructive self-learning" (Nonkukhetkhong et al., 2006, p. 1). Moreover, Khamkhien (2010, p. 185) interprets Foley (2005), noting that the current English curriculum places an emphasis on learner-centred culture and life-long learning

through cognitive, emotional, affective, ethical, and cultural growth within the Thai context (p. 185).

However, in practice, learner-centred and communicative approaches have not yet been fully adopted in English language classrooms. As noted by Noom-ura (2013, p. 139), the O-NET (Ordinary National Educational Test) revealed that the average English scores of Thai primary school students in 2010 and 2011 were, out of 100, 31.75, and 20.99 respectively (O-NET reports, 2012). Noom-ura (2013) asserted that these poor results were problematic. Some doubted the consistency and validity of the tests, while others questioned teaching and learning practices in English language classes in Thai schools.

The teaching of EFL in Thailand could be described as using deductive methods, depending on the rules set by teachers. In fact, it is not clear that the causes of failure in English education in Thailand result from the use of communicative approaches. Even though this approach has appeared in the previous national curriculum versions for the past two decades, the concept of teaching English for communication can still be considered new to EFL teachers in Thailand. Many researchers argue that there are factors influencing the apparent failure of English language teaching and learning, such as unqualified teachers, poorly-motivated students, learners of mixed abilities in large classes, and rare opportunities for student exposure to English outside classrooms (Biyaem, 1997; Dhanasobhon, 2006; ONEC, 2003). Moreover, some English teachers are not qualified because they are foreign tourists wanting a part-time job as an English teacher (Avasadanond, 2002; Dhanasobhon, 2006). The present study will illuminate the inherent pedagogies and power structures in classrooms, to clarify if these contribute to the poor results of Thai students.

1.6 OVERVIEW OF THE THESIS

Chapter 1 presents the background of the study, addressing the study of teaching and learning English in Thailand, particularly English writing, and the main purposes of this study along with the research question. This chapter also presents the multiple forms of English pedagogies implemented in Thailand. It argues that Thai teachers of English have encountered problems with selecting suitable pedagogies to be applied in primary schools. There is the influence of ASEAN economics and the current global situations, such as the tourism industry, international business, and overseas education, which increases the urgency to develop effective EFL pedagogies in Thai primary schools. Therefore, the main focus of this research is to explore how teachers apply writing instruction, and what issues of power operate in the application of certain pedagogies. The significance of the study, definitions of key terms, and theorists, and the methodology were also introduced, and are developed in greater depth in later chapters.

Chapter 2 presents a review of the research literature relevant to this study, describing the Thai EFL context, methods and trends in the teaching of writing skills that are relevant to the thesis, drawing on recent research in the field. It summarises the product-based approach, the process-based approach, and the genre-based approach, foregrounding the theories that prove important to the pedagogical findings presented in Chapter 5. Chapter 2 also describes the nature of Thai EFL classrooms, the cultural and linguistic diversity of student backgrounds, and teacher training in the Thai education system.

In Chapter 3, the theoretical framework and assumptions that have guided this study will be described. These are a socio-cultural perspective in English language, following Street (1995), Gee (1996) and theories on power, drawing on Foucault's

major works (1977-2002). Foucault's work is applied as the theoretical frame of this study and the classroom observational data analysis pertaining to the exercise of power in the Thai EFL context. Relations between space and power, disciplinary power and its techniques, are explained, including hierarchical observation, normalisation, examination, reward, and coercion. These categories of power become important in Chapter 5 to the thematic analysis of the data. Further, larger categories of power, such as pastoral power and bio-power, are discussed in terms of their application to classroom social actions. Governmentality, drawing on Foucault's theorisation of governmentality, is also included to explain the relations between education policies and teachers who apply those policies in practice.

Chapter 4 presents the methodology used, which is consistent with views of power outlined in Chapter 3. A description of the Thai classroom settings in which the research took place, the teacher participants and students who participated in the study, the data collection procedures, the data analysis, and schedules are also presented in this chapter. It outlines the use of critical ethnography to examine the classroom interactions that took place during English lessons in primary classrooms, and the systematic methods of thematic coding in the data analysis. Data analysis from interview transcripts, video-recordings, and observational field notes are explained, together with coding methods and samples. The chapter concludes with ethical and validity requirements that were managed in the research, such as using multiple sources of data including observations, interviews, and field notes to compare and crosscheck the consistency of obtained information. It also addresses ethics issues, such as the need for confidentiality.

Chapter 5 presents the findings of data analysis collected from the teacher participants who taught Grades 4, 5 and 6 primary level students, and important

archival documents, such as students' writing work samples and curriculum. The findings of the interview with teacher participants, classroom observation field notes and other archives are also provided. Using Foucault's notions of power and the EFL activities and strategies in teaching writing, this chapter draws out the interpretation of the findings, based on the theoretical framework presented in Chapter 3.

According to the framework presented in Chapter 3, discussions of the findings are presented in the following sub-sections on power relations and pedagogies. In 5.1 "Space, power and pedagogies" aims to demonstrate how the organisation of classroom space enables multiple forms of power to be exercised, while teaching and learning procedures were carried out.

In 5.1.1, the exercise of disciplinary power is discussed based on the analysis of social interaction between teachers and students in the EFL writing classrooms. Observed relations of pastoral power and pedagogy are explained in 5.1.2. Roles of the teachers in the writing classes are analysed and explained according to Foucault's concept of pastoral power applied to theories of writing pedagogy. Moreover, EFL activities in the classroom are used to explain the interactions between teachers and students. How bio-power relates to pedagogy is also analysed and discussed in 5.1.3 to interpret how the Thai government controls the well-being of the people through the use of the national curriculum.

Chapter 6 summarises the main findings from Chapter 5. The comparison of research findings from two teacher participants are presented in terms of teaching pedagogical practices and relations of power exhibited in their classes. It discusses the significance and contribution of this research, and draws out implications for EFL teaching and learning in the Thai context. It also outlines the limitations of the study,

and provides recommendations for future relevant research to account for power relations in EFL pedagogies and other contexts.

1.7 CONCLUSION

This study is significant because it reveals how writing instruction in Thailand is applied to Thai primary classrooms. This will help EFL teachers better understand how Thai EFL primary students currently learn to write in English. Moreover, this study will benefit the research that has been undertaken in Thailand, and open up to educators a different view of research as a tool to learn about their teaching. It emphasises how to meet the students' writing needs, rather than teaching only to the standardised assessment of English proficiency. However, this thesis arises in a clash of cultures – Western universities, Western theories in Eastern context of data collection. There is no neutral knowledge, or single way of viewing the world. Also, this study might not be generalised the theory to all Thai people since there are many relational categories of being Thai, and of being a Thai student. Like in Australia, students are from different background, Thai students are not to be seen as a homogenous group. Specifically, in this study, all students are ethnic groups, or 'Hill tribes'.

This thesis will also contribute to development of theories of English language pedagogies. The study will explain the exercise of power which influences the success or otherwise, of teachers' pedagogical practices. This information may be advantageous for the Ministry of Education in the way that it can dictate suitable teaching strategies or curriculum guidance to support teachers in primary schools. It is expected that this study may be useful for teachers to become more critically reflective on the overt and obscure relations of power and pedagogies, which influence their enactment of the Thai curriculum.

Power is seen as being not purely repressive and controlling, but circulating, productive, and exercised by all groups, whether subordinate or in a powerful position. Foucault's theory of power changed over the course of his lifetime, and this thesis cannot capture the full scope of these changes. This thesis uses his works from the period 1975 to 2002, mostly *Discipline and Punish* and *The Subject and Power* on theories of power, resistance, and governmentality.

This research aims to explore English writing pedagogies enacted by EFL teachers in the Thai context. Currently, there are several causes of unsuccessful writing among Thai students associated with teaching writing in the classroom. First, the way that teachers typically emphasise grammar and structure over other elements of writing is one important factor. Some Thai teachers of English have limited proficiency in English and English language pedagogy, which requires fully understanding the implementation of approaches, such as the communicative language approach. It is expected that this study may benefit EFL teachers by providing them with new understandings about research-based writing pedagogies, to reflect on their current teaching of English writing, and develop strategies to improve the teaching of EFL writing in ways that are achievable and consistent with the needs, constraints, and strengths of the Thai education context.

Chapter 2: The Literature Review

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes existing research on the teaching of English writing in the EFL classroom, and contextualises the need for this research within the Thai education system, the policies that shape the teaching of EFL, and the status and roles of English in Thailand. It also provides an overview of current English language teaching and teaching practices in EFL writing in Thailand, supported by current international research related to the teaching and learning of English writing. Since this research focuses on teaching English at the upper primary school level, the chapter presents a summary of the upper primary level English syllabus, strands, and achievement outcomes in the Thai national curriculum: The *Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551* (A.D. 2008).

To understand the English writing pedagogies, teaching practices, and power relations that operate in Thai primary classrooms, which comprise the social context of this research, the researcher reviewed literature relevant to English language teaching and learning, specifically with applicability to the nature of Thai EFL contexts. According to Williams (1999), theories are frequently re-contextualised by teacher education agencies (e.g. teacher education institutions, education systems, and publications of professional associations). This makes it necessary to discuss writing pedagogy applications in the context of Thai schooling. As such, this chapter foregrounds what forces induce the Thai government to administrate, develop, and modernise the quality of English education in Thailand. Further, in Chapter 3, Foucault's account of governmentality will be provided to support the theoretical framework regarding English language education policies.

It is vital to explore the implications of EFL pedagogies both in relation to Thai educational policy and the broader context (Baker, 2008). Thus, international issues – social, cultural (Janks, 2010), and political – need to be considered, to build on existing contributions of knowledge about power (Foucault, 2000) and pedagogy in the theory about English language learning, historically and worldwide. As Nunan (2003) states, English has had 'a significant impact on education policy', with English gaining status as a compulsory subject in all countries in the Asia-Pacific region due to its perceived importance as a global language. Crystal (2012, p. 176) confirmed that "bilingual policy allows a people to look both ways at once, and would be the most efficient way of a country achieving its aims". Fostering Standard English is one structural component of such a policy. Similar attitudes will be encountered in all parts of the world where English is developing a strong non-native presence, and at all levels of schooling, including early childhood, primary, secondary, and post-secondary.

2.1 THE GLOBAL SPREAD OF ENGLISH

Pennycook (1998, pp. 133-144) describes the spread of English as an outworking of 19th century British confidence in their own greatness as a colonial power. Theoretical commentaries about English abounded with 'glorifications' of English and its global spread.

English is used in an outer and expanding circle in the globalised world. In the "expanding circle" (Kachru, 1992 as cited in Canagarajah, 1999), which refers to the countries where English is used as a foreign or an additional language, Thailand is included, with "10 per cent speakers of English" (Iyer, Luke, Kettle & Mills, 2014, p. 326). However, using English in this circle gives special priority as an important foreign language playing a major role in daily life, such as in business and

commerce, media, science and technology. Crystal (2003) argues that to have learned a language is immediately to have rights in it. Accounting for power relations and ideological struggles (Huang, 2009, p. 327), English language users in Taiwan found that they were privileged. The English language is as influenced by those who speak it as a second or foreign language as by those who speak it as a mother tongue.

It is clear that English moves from native-speaking countries, such as USA, UK, Australia, New Zealand, etc. where English is used as a mother tongue or as L1 (Crystal, 2003) to play an important role in non-speaking English countries (Nunan, 2003). It can be said that English has shifted from L1 to be a communicative medium in the globalised world. The shift of power from inner-circle speakers to outer-circle and expanding-circle speakers "may have legitimised different cultures and local uses of English around the world" (Tupas, 2006, p. 169). Further, Crystal (2003) argues that English is associated with power, as we can see several new linguistic features achieving an increasingly public profile, in their respective countries such as Singapore, the Philippines, and Spain. Those new linguistics features come to be adopted, often at first with some effort, then more commonly, by first-language speakers of English in the locality. Pennycook (2010, p. 128) argues that "Everything happens locally. However global a practice may be, it still always happens locally".

L1 English speakers often migrate to nations like Thailand to work in industries, such as tourism and educational institutions, becoming lecturers in Thai universities, college, and schools (Kaewmala, 2012). Graddol (2006) has asserted that the indications are that English will enjoy a special position in the international society of the 21st century and it will be the only language to appear in the language mix in every part of the world.

Thailand is influenced by new media, such as the internet in a digital age, like all other countries in the world. In Thailand, e-learning has been implemented throughout all levels of education (Deerajviset & Harbon, 2014). Prasongsook (2010) reported in his research findings that EFL teachers in Thai primary schools need to be supported by teaching materials or innovations which enhance their language development and confidence in teaching English. English language teaching in Thailand should focus on the content of the innovation, as well as the process of the implementation, taking into account local context and culture (Iemjinda, 2005).

Drawing on the broader literature in the digital age, Mills and Exley (2014) suggested that children today sometimes have access to digital texts from powerful, uncensored, adult sites that purport to offer authentic information. This has prompted educators to teach critical literacy skills in secure, web-based contexts. Students can be taught to independently evaluate and challenge the reliability of information, and identify who benefits from websites. With the enormous growth in the volume of textual materials, students need to develop abilities to critically select, interpret and synthesise relevant information.

Here is an example of using multimedia in an EFL classroom. Myer, Wade, and Abrami (2013) reported the work of 21 elementary school teachers and their students in nine urban and rural schools in Canada as they migrated from 'pencil and paper' student portfolios to electronic ones. Their research result demonstrated that e-portfolios (ePEARL) can have multiple positive impacts in classrooms: the teachers who regularly used ePEARL were pleased with their own professional growth as well as the progress their students made. They concluded that the ePEARL is an effective, powerful bilingual (French-English) tool that is available at no cost to the educational community.

A case study carried out in 2010 by Prasongsook demonstrated that EFL teachers in Thai primary schools need to be supported via teaching materials or innovations which enhance their language development and confidence in teaching English. The study aimed to examine the effectiveness of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approaches as implemented by teachers of EFL in selected Thai primary schools. The study developed three teaching units using different methods within a communicative approach, and investigated the extent to which these units assisted EFL teachers at the primary level to implement effective English teaching.

Prasongsook's study found that most teachers had difficulties implementing the approaches to English teaching provided. Only the teacher with pedagogical experience was able to effectively guide her class through the three phases of the CLT weak version unit; the other three participating teachers remained in the first two phases. The same three teachers also faced difficulties teaching the Concentrated (CLE) unit. All language encounter teachers implemented the CLE and Computer-Based Language Activities (COBLA) unit effectively. Overall, the study assisted in making pedagogical comparisons between Communication Language Teaching and Concentrated Language Encounters, which is relevant to the current research of EFL writing pedagogies. However, the study did not take into account the ideological dimensions of power and pedagogies in the EFL language classroom, which has rarely been addressed in the literature, and even less so in the Thai context.

2.2 THE EFL CONTEXT OF SCHOOLING IN THAILAND AND THE EFL CURRICULUM

English is used to seek for knowledge both in-school and out-of-school, and is also the language medium in the global economy, tourism, and international organisations (Graddol, 2006). According to Gebhard (2006), EFL can be defined as

the study of English by people who live in places in which English is not used as a means of first language communication. He further indicates that in such a setting, students have few chances to be exposed to English for communication outside the classroom. In the EFL context, some cultural aspects in the target language may not be naturally acquired (Brown, 2001; Cotterall & Cohen, 2003). The following sections will provide the history of English and its role in the Thai context. The reform of the English curriculum, which was partly due to the failure of Thai economics in 1996 (Wongsothorn, 2003), was enacted by the Ministry of Education in 1999.

2.2.1 History of teaching English in Thailand

How English has arrived in each country around the globe differs with the social and political history of each country. Historically, the Kings of Thailand recognised the power of the English language and the threat to independence that colonial powers presented. To avoid foreign dominance, the Thai people chose to utilise that power to the advantage of the Thai nation. This emphasises that English has an important role in Thailand, reflected in Thai education policy since then.

The history of teaching English in Thailand can be traced back to post World War II, while Britain had an important influence on Thailand during the early years of the Chakri dynasty (1824-1865), and had been relied upon to "blunt the more extreme imperial adventure of France" (Wyatt, 2003). Making the decision to avoid being colonised, Thai rulers decided to learn about Western culture and the English language. At first, this cultural influence was largely British. After World War II the foreign influence was largely American, and English was primarily spread through tourism and through trade exports (Durongphan, Aksornkool, Sawangwong & Tiancharoen, 1982; Sukwiwat, 1985; Wongsothorn, 2001).

After World War II, Thailand identified the USA as the nation most likely to predominate in South East Asia. At the same time, the USA recognised Thailand as "an independent state to be defended against communism" (Wyatt, 2003). The USA was now playing the role once held by the British in the 19th century. According to Aksornkool (1985), native English speaking teachers were hired to teach the royal children and selected royal officials from the high aristocracy. At that time, the objective of learning English was to acculturate royal officials who were in contact with Westerners in terms of trade and diplomacy.

English was never imposed on the Thai people by any English-speaking nation (Masavisut, Sukwiwat &Wongmontha, 1986; Sukwiwat, 1985). However, over past decades, English has been used by people at all levels of Thai society, such as among business people, academics, and government leaders, to fulfil their own objectives, so that they could participate in international communication, compete in international trade, develop the tourism industry, or simply improve the family's economic well-being. For example, Thailand is promoting English learning through all levels of education in order to meet the demands of using English to communicate with nations in the ASEAN Trade in Goods Agreement (ATIGA, 2007; Wannachotephawate, 2015; Wiriyachittra, 2002).

The teaching and learning of English in former times was primarily through rote memorisation and grammar translation, since this reflects the educational and religious tradition of Thai culture (Wongsothorn, 2001). Students in Thailand consider "knowledge as something to be transmitted by the teacher rather than discovered by the students" (Laopongharn & Sercombe, 2009; Tharawoot, 2009, p. 5). Therefore, the rote acquisition of knowledge was given priority over independent creative thinking and a learner-centred approach. English is part of the educational

curriculum at all levels in Thailand, and has been a compulsory subject for students beyond Grade 4 since 1921 (Aksornkul, 1980, as cited in Foley, 2005). The role English plays in the social and economic development of the country has long been recognised.

2.2.2 EFL curriculum

In 1966, the Thai government directed that English must be emphasised and taught as a compulsory course for all primary students from year one, aged 7 years onward, to provide the opportunity for students to continue their English education without interruption and facilitate lifelong learning (Ministry of Education, 1996). The period of compulsory schooling in Thailand is six years of primary schooling, and three years of lower secondary education. In Thailand, students learn English from the primary level (Year 1-6), and throughout the secondary level (Year 7-12) as a compulsory subject.

The curriculum in the primary level aims to provide students with the foundation of English skills and prepare them for secondary education (Wongsothorn, 2001; 2003). Students study English for three to four periods a week (Punthumasen, 2007), in almost all public primary schools. For some schools, there are extra periods in which native English teachers teach students English listening and speaking skills. The curriculum at this level "is geared towards usage; the emphasis is on oral skills and basic understanding of simple English for everyday use" (Wongsothorn, 2000, p.330).

The teaching of English language follows the 2001 Basic Education Curriculum by the Ministry of Education. Nevertheless, teachers can adapt the curriculum to suit the needs of the local community. Moreover, teachers should encourage the critical thinking skills of their students (Ministry of Education, 2006;

Punthumasen, 2007). The teaching materials are typically obtained from commercial sources "approved by a committee consisting of experts, teachers, and linguists appointed by the Ministry of Education" (Wongsothorn, 2000, p. 331). The materials are varied, in order to suit the needs and abilities of students.

An audio-lingual method of teaching English was introduced and implemented to replace the old traditional methods in EFL contexts, with the expectation that it would enhance learners' communicative competence. However, this method had limited success in enabling Thai students to communicate in English (Baker, 2008; Foley, 2005; Forman, 2005). This is partly because the Thai education system emphasises a didactic teaching style and still tends to rely on rote memorisation of knowledge. Thai students learn to dislike discussion since they typically fear getting the answer wrong and often expect that every question has a correct answer (Dueraman, 2012; Foley, 2005; 2008; Hayes, 2008).

In education reform in English language teaching in Thailand, there is now an emphasis on learner-centred and communicative approaches, and every level of schooling should be at the forefront of this change. Furthermore, according to the National Education Act, teachers are expected to "foster collaborative learning, thinking processes and use of English" (Wongsothorn, 2002, p.111). The Thai government was aware of the importance of improving methods of assessment in the Thai education system; accordingly, there was an attempt to reform education at all levels.

In the era of globalisation, many countries have established networks and international cooperation for their own political, economic, and social development. Therefore, it was inevitable that English would be the most important means of communication. As English is an international language, the ability to communicate

effectively in English is essential for a country's competitiveness in global trading. Thus, the reform of English teaching in Thailand follows this global trend which focuses on "developing learners' communicative competence, and promoting learning strategies and learner autonomy in language classrooms" (Nonkukhetkhong et al., 2006, p.2).

The education system in Thailand is divided into four levels:

1. Pre-school or pre-primary is considered as a preparatory course for primary education. Generally, public pre-schools offer a two-year course, but private pre-schools offer a three-year course. The age of entry ranges from three to four years old.
2. Primary education offers a six-year compulsory and free of charge course. However, the private sector comprises schools run for profit and are fee-paying. All children are obliged by law to attend primary school. The age of entry ranges from six to seven years old.
3. Secondary education comprises two levels: lower and upper. On completing lower Secondary (Year 7-9), students may enter vocational education and training and continue into higher levels of vocation-oriented programs, depending on their aptitude and interest. Those completing year 12 can apply to enter higher education. As a result of the implementation of the National Education Act (1999), secondary education has become compulsory and free of charge to all people. Students may choose to leave the school system after completing 12 years of education.
4. Higher education is divided into three levels: diploma, undergraduate and postgraduate. It may take place in college, a university or a special institution.

Generally, upper secondary school graduates can pursue their higher education by taking the national university entrance examination. Most university degree programs take four years to complete. Graduates can pursue their higher education by enrolling in open public universities. According to the Ministry of University Affairs

(MUA, 2000 as cited in Lao, 2015), in 2000 there are a total of 645 institutions.in Thailand. Apart from the universities, there are several forms of education modified to suit different purposes of training, interest, and ability. These include such specialised areas as teacher education and training (provided by the Rajabhat Universities), nursing, physical education, technical and vocational education, music, drama, the military and police.

Table 2.1

The educational system of Thailand (adapted from OEC, 2007, p. 25)

Basic education				
Level	Pre-primary	Primary Grades 1-6 Compulsory	Lower secondary Grades 7-9	Upper secondary Grades 10-12
Approx. Age (yrs)	3-6	6-11	12-14	15-17

It should be noted that most levels of education offer foreign language courses; therefore, it is important to understand the policies that shape the teaching of foreign languages in the Thai education system. Official Thai policy regarding the learning of foreign languages encourages both the languages of the region and significant European ones. Education bureaucrats expected that Thai people would be eager to acquire a working knowledge of the languages of neighbouring Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam. Thailand also needs language skills in Japanese and Mandarin, as it is interacting significantly at government and private industry levels with regional influences, chiefly Japan and China. Thailand trades with many countries and has diplomatic relations with almost all. University courses are available in English, French, German, Spanish, and Italian; however, English has been specified in government policy as the most important one as a global language (McKay, 1992; Wiriyachittra, 2002; Wongsothorn et al, 1996).

Thai foreign language policy has changed to meet the demands of globalisation, prior to the implementation of the education reform program at the Ministry of Education in 1996. Foreign languages were taught as an optional subject in state-run schools from Year Five through the upper secondary level. At the primary level, students could choose to study English or Mandarin, but at the secondary level, they could choose to study other foreign languages e.g. French, German, and Japanese. The majority of students choose to study English because they recognised its value for their future careers as it is a widely used international language for both academic and occupational aspects. Language choices are presented in Appendix A: Learning area of foreign language: strands and outcomes.

In sum, education reform in Thailand has been significantly influenced by rapid economic improvement (ATIGA, 2007). Thailand is similar to other ASEAN countries, such as Malaysia, Singapore, and Vietnam, which are experiencing rapid growth in their economies (Nomnian, 2013). This can be seen with the establishment of the ASEAN Community in 2015 (Deerajviset, 2014). Like all countries, Thailand has been affected by information and communications technologies (Chayanuvat, 2003; Choomthong, 2014; Foley, 2005; Office of Education Committee (OEC), 1999; Wongsothorn, 1996). Thus, the key product objectives from an English language teaching perspective in the National Education Act (NEA) are knowledge of languages and skills in languages (Section 23), and ability to use Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) (Section 66) (Todd & Keyuravong, 2004).

2.2.3 Teacher training

Teacher training is offered either in universities by the Ministry of University Affairs or in teacher training colleges administered by the Ministry of Education's Department of Teacher Education. Previously, it took four years to complete a

bachelor's degree for the teaching profession, but now the teaching education curriculum is five years, including four years' course work, and one year of teaching field experience (Ministry of Education, 2013).

In Thailand, the educational institutions responsible for teacher education and training are named the Rajabhat Universities (formerly known as the teachers' colleges and Rajabhat Institutes). They have had to concentrate on the mass production of graduates to meet the rapid increase in demand for teachers (*The Nation*, 2005). They rarely focus on the socio-educational change from producing teachers who are good public servants to teachers who are analytical, and prepared to use a variety of teaching-learning approaches and assessment methods. The main method for teaching and learning is the lecture, where discussion and questioning is not usually encouraged. The main method of assessment is an examination, emphasising multiple choice tests, where students are discouraged from seeking knowledge and exercising their thinking ability (Office of National Education Commission, 1999). Therefore, teachers who graduate from these institutions do not know how to teach their students to learn differently, nor how to learn more effectively (Ekachai, 1999).

During the past decade, Thai teachers of English put the emphasis on teaching the receptive skills of listening and reading; however, the new syllabus requires a greater focus on the productive skills of speaking and writing. Cooperative learning is also now considered important to help students communicate in English and to enable them to be prepared to meet the demands of social change and the country's development (Divaharan & Atputhasamy, 2002; Freeman, 1993). In addition to new pedagogical methods, such as the communicative approach, Thai teachers are

encouraged to use technologies and various kinds of materials to improve their teaching and learning in EFL classrooms (Ministry of Education, 2006).

The Ministry of Education is still to propose minimum entry standards for teacher recruits in either public or private schools (*The Thairath*, 2013). Due to educational budget limitations, the Ministry of Education cannot provide serving teachers in schools with sufficient training courses to update them with alternative teaching-learning approaches that would enable them to teach their students effectively. Most teachers remain content with rote memorisation, which they are familiar with historically (Tyrosvoutis, 2016; Yilmaz, 2007). At the time of this research, the Thai government has prepared to upgrade the educational system to improve teacher education, teacher training, teacher recruitment, and student admission to all school levels.

The most important factor in student learning progress is teachers and teacher quality (Geringer, 2003), while other factors such as motivation, funding, and class sizes are considered less important. Teachers in Thailand are expected to teach effectively in challenging environments, often with 60 students in one classroom. Thai teachers have an overloaded burden in their teaching periods and conducting research to improve their career (Prasongsook, 2010). Also, teachers are required to use ICT in their teaching.

Some institutions and organisations, both government and the private sector, offer assistance by organising training sessions, seminars, and conferences for teachers at all levels. For instance, conferences for novice teachers and teachers with some experience are held every two years with the purpose of developing teacher quality (Khanarat & Nomura, 2008; Wiriyachitra, 2002). Thailand encourages a continuous learning curve for English teachers (Khanarat & Nomura, 2008).

Teachers can attend training sessions, such as classroom management, instructional skills, writing lesson plans, and English language proficiency. Thai teachers of English have an opportunity to join the training sessions or seminars organised by well-known organisations (Graham, 2010), such as the annual Thailand Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) conferences, English Resource and Instruction Centres (ERIC) (Khanarat & Nomura, 2008), Primary Education English Resources Centre (PEERS).

2.2.4 Learners' background

The spread of English in Thailand has largely been confined to the rural middle classes in major metropolitan areas such as Bangkok and Chiang Mai. English is also used by those involved in international tourism and international business. But for other Thais, particularly the rural poor, it is very much a foreign language with little impact on their daily lives. Similarly, in this study context, the students were ethnically from diverse backgrounds. There is not one homogenous category of Thai students. The differences of Thai students can be explained as there is ethnicity, like most live in rural areas. In this research, all students in this school can be designated as ethnic minority students because their sociocultural backgrounds differentiate them though they are registered as of Thai nationality.

The costs of private schools and government schools, and for urban school and rural schools, are different (Nomnian, 2013; Tsang & Taoklam, 1992; UNESCO, 2013). Thailand has a large private sector education system paralleling the government sector (Keawmala, 2012). Normally, the number of English classes in the private sector is much greater than in the government sector. Students who attend private schools are considered to be of higher status than those who go to government schools. Consequently, students from private schools have higher

English proficiency than those from government schools (Mackenzie, 2002; Tsang & Taoklam, 1992).

Even though in the 1996 school curriculum, English language teaching has been introduced into the first year of primary school, the reality is that only primary schools in urban areas and private primary schools have been able to implement this policy fully (Kam & Wong, 2004). Moreover, it has been concluded by some that the barriers that prevent students from learning English include students' unwillingness to speak due to a culturally-based seniority system and shyness; an over-emphasis on accuracy; and having an ingrained attachment to rote memorisation (Mackenzie, 2002; Wiriyachitra, 2002; Wongsothorn, 2001). Further, students have problems with not having enough practice in English on their own, lacking opportunities for English exposure outside class, insufficient knowledge and skills of English, and students having problems with writing (Noom-ura, 2013).

Though Thai students learn English in formal education for at least ten years, the curriculum cannot meet the demands required by the workplace (Nomnian, 2013). Teachers are aware of improving the learners' communication skills. Teachers seem to encourage their students to practise listening-speaking skills, and reading-writing skills outside the classrooms (Noom-ura, 2013). However, in the Thai EFL context, English language learning generally takes place only in the classroom (Forman, 2007; Teng & Sinwongsuwat, 2015).

2.2.5 A teacher-centred approach

A teacher-centred approach has played an important role in educational history in Thai EFL classrooms (Chatranonth, 2008; Kulsirisawad, 2012). Learner-centred learning or active learning is a method of instruction in which the student is in the centre of focus (Matas & Natolo, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). On the other

hand, teacher-centred learning or passive learning occurs where the teacher plays a didactic role. Bowers and Flinders (1990) defined the teacher-centred model as an industrial production in which the student is a product of "exit skills" or behavioural "out-comes". In contrast, the learner-centred approach aims for self and life-long education (Koper, 2004), and the role of the teacher is changed from teller to coordinator, and from material users to teaching material providers (Baldauf & Moni, 2006).

In Thailand, school systems, curriculum standards, course books, examination systems, and so on are controlled by the Ministry of Education (Khanarat & Nomura, 2008; Wiriyachittra, 2002). It is noted that in a teacher-centred approach, teachers are the authority in the classroom, whereas students are forced to be passive and respectful to the teachers. English grammar teaching has been carried out within classrooms where practice, drills, teacher's management, and commercial course books shape learning procedures. It could be said that students lack opportunity for communicative interactions using English language.

Teacher-centred teaching approaches adopted by most Thai teachers enable great power and control in the classroom as the teachers are experts in what they are teaching and students are complete novices (Kulsirisawad, 2012). Thai students are not supposed to question or challenge their teachers' ideas, thinking, or teaching. Students are supposed to be docile, easy to teach, easy to manage, and completely submissive to the teachers' power.

Teachers who use the teacher-centred teaching model decide what their students should learn, and use direct teaching methods to impart their knowledge to their students who are sitting quietly as recipients of knowledge. This kind of teaching method promotes rote learning, in which the students commit the materials

to memory without understanding. The students are expected to answer examinations from memory.

Since teacher-centred approaches have dominated Thai education for decades, it has been argued that Thai students cannot think creatively or critically, and cannot put their knowledge to creative practical applications in real-world situations. Thus, the enactment of *the National Education Act* in 1999 that makes educational reform mandatory, and the subsequent implementation of learning reform in the same year, were the first crucial steps taken towards a complete restructure of the Thai education system.

Mackenzie (2002; 2005), cited in Dhanarattigannon (2008), conducted a study that trained teachers in the communicative approach and researched the teacher pedagogies following the training. The research demonstrated that teachers were overwhelmed by the workload and the large numbers of students, so the teachers resorted to direct instruction and their former pedagogies, which included a focus on grammar and multiple-choice questions. The communicative approach was also incompatible with the curriculum and assessment forms.

2.3 TEACHING EFL WRITING IN THAI CONTEXTS

Approaches adopted in Thailand have closely followed approaches developed to teach ESL in native speaking countries, particularly in the UK, the US and Australia. Traditionally, approaches developed in the EFL contexts were primarily concerned with speaking skills. Writing skills were often introduced as a memory aid as students moved towards mastering oral skills. Since the early 20th century, writing was typically the secondary skill set, rather than being valued for its unique contribution to the development of whole-language competence. The theoretical

background of these approaches, their strengths and weaknesses, and their impact on English language teaching in Thailand will be described next.

Writing instruction has become a field of increasing interest in recent years. The teaching of writing in EFL has seen dramatic changes in the last 20 years that have led to paradigm shifts in the field. There have been numerous approaches to the teaching of writing. Nevertheless, in order to understand the history of teaching writing in Thailand, it is important to consider *the controlled composition approach,* together with the *"current-traditional rhetoric approach"* or *"functional approach*", which are still found at the tertiary level of education in Thailand (Dhanarattigannon, 2008; Jarunthawatchai, 2010). The researcher will briefly discuss the communicative approach, which plays an important role in teaching Thai EFL writing as well. However, in recent years, there has been emphasis and debate on the differences between three major approaches – *the product-based approach, the process-based approach and the genre-based approach*. Significantly, this study will examine what teacher pedagogies are used in teaching English writing in primary schools in Thailand.

In many parts of Thailand, writing, particularly writing in English, has been taught as a part of teaching language. In language classrooms (both in Thai and in English), the teacher addresses four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. However, writing is not emphasised unless it is a subject for students majoring in English language. There may be many approaches introduced in Thai classrooms. However, writing instruction in Thailand historically can be grouped in two main approaches according to ESL/EFL writing instruction: the traditional writing approach and the process approach.

Traditional writing approach

Writing in Thailand has often been taught based on language structure (the product-oriented approach). In a traditional classroom, writing whole texts is not the focus, but is covered tangentially as a part of learning grammatical structures. Writing is taught after the other language skills, such as grammar and sentence structure (Thammasarnsophon, 1991). Writing is a means to practise grammar, and for the teacher to evaluate how well the students learned the sentence structure they were taught. The teacher provides the students with exercise drills (sentence-level) to practise and model texts to imitate. Controlled writing and guided writing are typically used in the traditional classroom. Traditional writing teachers focus on forms or grammatical structure and view writing as a part of grammar instruction.

Later on, many teachers in the traditional classroom integrated the "current-traditional rhetoric approach" or the "functional approach" (Hyland, 2003, p. 6) in writing classes. After ample traditional study to become familiar with the language (Hyland, 2003), students are given instruction on how texts fluctuate. For example, first they are taught different types of paragraphs such as cause-effect, comparison and contrast, and narration, in order to learn the functions of these texts. The teacher then explains how language is used to convey meaning. The teacher also often teaches the five-paragraph essay including introduction, body, and conclusion. Later on, the students are asked to write an essay by imitating the format or pattern of language they learned according to the purpose of their writing. In other words, the functional approach emphasises the purpose of language in writing. The current-traditional rhetoric is commonly used in writing classes for higher education at the college level, particularly for students majoring in English. The traditional writing approach stresses language structure, rhetoric patterns, and language use. This

approach is in use in some writing classrooms in Thailand, and can be found across all levels of schooling (Chuenchaichon, 2014; Chuendaechum, 1999).

The philosophy of controlled writing was rooted in the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM), which is based on the behaviourist principle of stimulus-response. There are three major assumptions underpinning the ALM (Reid, 1993; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). First, 'positive reinforcement' is an effective teaching method and error is not recognised. Second, habituation of language is a basis of fluency, so drills are used for practising language. Third, oral language is important for success, whereas writing is only a 'support' skill.

Therefore, writing is predominantly taught as a supplement to oral language, and as exercises for practising language structures and language use. In the classroom, teachers focus on forms of writing, particularly at the sentence level, on the teaching of grammatical structures and on error correction. Controlled writing became less popular when research showed that emphasis on grammatical correction and sentence-level structure can block the composing process and reduce students' motivation to write (Perl, 1979; Silva, 1990). Although there have been some concerns about this method of teaching writing, the controlled writing approach is still used in many ESL classrooms (Hyland, 2003; Silva, 1990).

2.4 PEDAGOGIES FOR TEACHING EFL WRITING

The teaching of writing in the Thai curriculum is unclear in relation to recommendations for pedagogical practices, calling for research studies such as this one. In addition, researchers have observed that there is a lack of research on many aspects of English writing instruction for Thai EFL students (Chuenchaichon, 2014; Glass, 2008; Jarunthawatchai, 2010; Shulman, 2005). On the other hand, many studies have examined how to improve students' English writing in other parts of the

world. For instance, Santoso (2010) conducted research to establish and develop innovative instructional procedures, in which scaffolding can be expanded and applied in order to enhance learning of EFL writing skills in an effective hybrid learning community in Indonesia.

Chong's research in 2002 sought for the answers to this question: What were some of the influences reflected in the children's writing? A case study with six, 12-year-old students in a writing class reported that the pedagogical choices of the teacher play a very important role in helping children write in English, such as their responses to children's writing and their manner of dealing with writing errors. Lee (2012) similarly conducted research to investigate teaching genre-based writing to high school students at a basic level in Korea. This research concluded that the genre-based approach in writing is advantageous in EFL writing, and the teachers' knowledge of genre and implementation of this approach are important factors in helping students to develop writing skills.

English writing is one of the most complex and difficult skills for EFL students since it involves the process of transferring writers' ideas to readers' thoughts (Barkaoui, 2007; Myles, 2002; Suwannasom, 2001). Writing is also claimed as one of the most important skills in learning English by a number of scholars/linguists (Cumming, 1995; Hyland, 2003; Kroll, 2003; Matsuda, 2003; Silva & Matsuda, 2001, as cited in Chuenchaichon, 2014). Glass (2008) reported in his study that in Thailand, the Thai education system is not compatible with the teaching of writing skills. There has been research on English writing at Thai tertiary levels e.g. Dhanarattigannon (2008); Glass (2008); Jaruntawatchai (2010); Kongpetch (2003). There is one research study on the whole language approach and teaching writing agency and power in Thai EFL classes (Kaewnuch, 2008). Unlike the current study,

Kaewnuch (2008) only considered a single pedagogy, rather than a range of current approaches used in Thai EFL classrooms. Overall, very little has been investigated on the teaching of writing with school children (Glass, 2008), especially at the primary school level.

Accordingly, it is necessary to investigate pedagogies of teaching English writing adopted by teachers at the Thai primary school level, because understanding what Thai teachers do and why they select certain approaches to writing is the first step to identifying the most suitable pedagogies which can be applied to the teaching of writing in Thai contexts.

Although there are many approaches or methods and strategies that have been used in teaching of ESL/EFL writing (Hyland, 2003; Kroll, 1998; Richards, 2006; Silva, 1990), the researcher narrows the discussion to three approaches that are most relevant to this research.

Writing instruction in Thailand can be grouped into two main approaches according to ESL/EFL writing instruction. These are the traditional writing approach (product-oriented approach) and the process approach; however, the genre-based approach has also been recently applied in the Thai syllabus to a lesser extent (Ministry of Education, 2001). This is evident by the systematic presentation of genres of writing, such as narratives, persuasive texts and instructional texts. The history of ESL writing instruction and an overview of these three major approaches to teaching English in Thai EFL contexts will be discussed in detail here in relation to the product, process, and genre approaches respectively. These approaches are addressed here in the theoretical framework because they will influence the analysis of the pedagogies that the researcher observed during the critical ethnographic classroom observations. They were also covered in the literature review above, but

only in terms of recent literature and studies on Thai pedagogies, rather than the theoretical origins of these approaches.

2.4.1 The product-based approach

The precursor to the product-based approach, audio-lingualism, initiated in North America, is one of the traditional approaches used in many parts of Thailand at all levels of education. Grammatical competence was the foundation of language proficiency; hence, students were provided with detailed grammar rules and then given opportunities for practice. During the audio-lingualism era, language classes downplayed the role of writing since writing was seen as only a supporting skill. Thus, ESL writing classes only focused on sentence structures as a support for the grammar class. Silva (1990) stated that the product approach of writing was used in order to highlight form and syntax and the emphasis was on rhetorical drills.

Gabrielatos (2002) points out that the product approach encourages students to 'mimic' a model text, which is usually presented and analysed at an early stage. The product approach focuses on the logical construction and arrangement of discourse forms, in addition to maintaining its previous emphasis on paragraph models, grammar and usage rules, and vocabulary development. Silva (1990) argues that product-based approaches assist to reinforce L2 writing in terms of grammatical and syntactical forms. In Thailand, writing is still taught after the other language skills are developed and writing is considered a supplement to learning English language (Phochanapan, 2007; Suwannasom, 2001; Thammasarnsophon, 1991). Teachers focus on forms or grammatical structure, and view writing as a part of grammar instruction. This occurs at all levels of teaching English throughout Thai schools.

Reid (1993, p. 24) argued that the main teaching method used by this approach was controlled composition, the philosophy of which "grew directly out of the audio-

lingual method: students are taught incrementally, error is prevented, and fluency is expected to arise out of practice with structures". This is similar to Hyland (2003), who explains that foreign or second language writing "mainly involves linguistic knowledge and vocabulary choices, syntactic patterns, and cohesive devices that comprise the essential building blocks of texts" (p. 31).

Hyland (2003) indicates that a four-stage process that displays a focus on language structure as a basis for the teaching of writing includes: familiarisation: learners being taught certain grammar and vocabulary, usually through a text; controlled writing: learners manipulating fixed patterns, often from substitution tables; guided writing: learners imitating model texts; and free writing: learners use the patterns they have developed to write an essay, letter, and so forth.

In Thailand, this approach has been practised in the traditional classroom; for instance, teachers introduce different types of paragraphs, such as cause-effect and narration, so as to teach the functions of these texts. Then the teacher explains how language is used to convey the meaning. After that, students write an essay by imitating the format or pattern of language they have learned according to the purpose of their writing. According to Chuendaechum (1999), the product approach is found in many writing classrooms in Thailand at all levels of the education system.

However, the product-based approach has a limitation: it does not provide the opportunity for students to use creativity in their controlled writing compositions. They pay little attention to the writing process itself (e.g. how the content of text is to be researched), and do not recognise the importance of audience or purpose of text to convey the message in the L2 culturally accepted style (Caudery 1997; Silva 1990). Consequently, another approach to teaching writing, known as the process approach, which primarily focuses on the writer rather than the text, was introduced in teaching

writing (Bruton, 2005). This approach implied power and did not draw on the socio-cultural approach to teaching language, because students imitate the model text and work independently without interaction with peers or teachers (Barnard & Campbell, 2005; Byram, Gribkova & Starkey, 2002; John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996).

2.4.2 The process-based approach

Since the 1970s, the teaching of writing has shifted away from a focus on the written product to a concentration on the writer and the process of writing (Reid, 1993; Silva, 1990). ESL research on process writing is consistent with research on process writing with native English speakers, and the research has focused on how writers compose and understand writing as a process of discovery and self-expression (Hyland, 2003; Puengpipattrakul, 2014; Zamel, 1982; Zen, 2005). This approach is based on theories such as expressive and social constructivism. The focus of this approach is on the process of composing, self-expression, and collaborative learning.

In the early 1980s, the shift from finished product to process in writing instruction has provided insight into the behaviours, strategies, and difficulties of writers and has made the composing process the central focus in both English L1 and L2 writing (Hyland 2003; Silva, 1990). The process approach argues that writers create and change their ideas as they write, and that writing is recursive: when and how often writers rework words and structures depends on their personal writing style as well as the writing task and context. The process approaches focus on how a text is written instead of the final outcome. As noted in Hyland (2003), the process approaches have a major impact on understanding the nature of writing and the way writing is taught. Therefore, the process approach emphasises the importance of a recursive procedure of pre-writing, drafting, evaluating and revising.

The writing process approach used in Thailand comprises three main stages: pre-writing, writing, and post-writing (Dueraman, 2012; Tanuwongviwat, 1995). The model of writing process that involves the planning-writing-reviewing framework established by Flower and Hayes is "the most widely accepted by L2 writing teachers" (Hyland, 2003). This model is shown below: planning, drafting, revising, and editing in the writing process is recursive and non-linear.

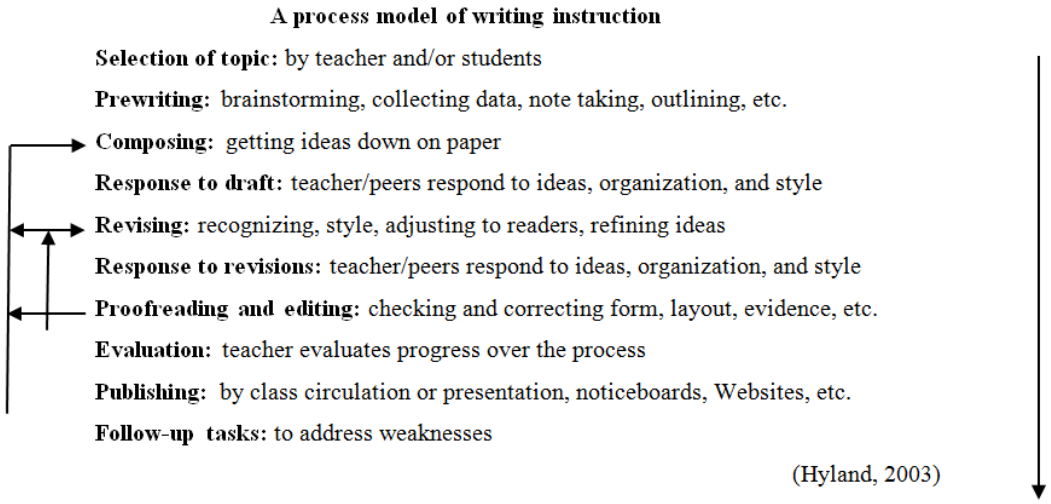


Figure 2.1. A process model of writing instruction.

Although the process approach has been introduced in Thai education for at least fifteen years, according to the research documents reviewed, few teachers really use or apply this approach in their writing classroom, because this approach requires students to produce multiple drafts (Steele, 2004), and to make appropriate comments during the various stages of writing, which cannot be done by rhetorically inexperienced students. However, process approaches have provided valuable insights into the teaching of writing with an emphasis on creativity, particularly encouraging students to practise writing, and assisting students' understanding of the writing process. The process approach is discussed in relation to L2 writing and then in relation to teaching EFL writing (Jaruntawatchai, 2010).

In the process approach, instructional activities are designed to help students express themselves fluently, to help them think and organise their ideas before writing and to help them revise drafts. In the classroom, teachers promote collaborative learning through group work such as peer responses. Also, the teaching premise in this classroom is learner-centred. The teachers reduce their authority and play a less controlling role by allowing the students to explore a variety of topics or to choose a topic of their own. In the meantime, teachers allow students to work at their own pace. Students have more time to write, to explore their topic and to revise their work in order to help them improve their writing.

In the pre-writing stage, the teacher prepares the students for information and language they need for writing. The activities or tasks used in this stage include brainstorming, outlining, mind-mapping, and oral discussion about the topic. The writing stage, referred to as drafting, is based on the information from the first stage. Writing can be performed in groups or completed as individual work. Post-writing refers to the revision stage. The activities in this stage included peer-review or peer-response, conferencing, revising, editing, and publishing (the final draft that students turn in).

The following sections review research on writing in Thailand, bearing in mind that the amount of research on writing with primary school students is low. While there are policies on writing, there is no specific research on writing pedagogies in the Thai context. Unlike the other studies of the ESL/EFL writing classroom, studies in Thailand tend to focus on test scores as a measurement of students' writing ability.

A longitudinal project carried out by Graham (2011) used designing a comic series based on the curriculum requirements for the first six years of English language basic education (primary) in Thailand. The dialogues are based on the

language found in end-of-year examination preparatory books (O-Net and N-Net reports, 2011) and input into an internet-based comic-making application: www.makebeliefscomix.com. The student participants were Grade 2 students in Udon Thani Province in Thailand. The findings suggest that students benefit from reusing language phrases in the early years, using activities such as gap-fill. Also, students were able to practise writing as an additional activity. Besides, the writing component, following the gap-fill comic approach gives teachers the opportunity to give both written and spoken corrective feedback (Hartshorn et al., 2010) to students on an individual basis, which although time-consuming, proved very effective in producing improved written work and motivating the students. In addition, it is important to note that the gap-fill activity does not have to be applied only to vocabulary learning; this activity can also be used for grammar practice.

The semi-structured interview with 25 primary school teachers teaching EFL in Thailand conducted by Tongpoon-Patanasorn (2011) sought answers to the following four research questions:

1. To what extent do teachers understand learner-centeredness?
2. What are teachers' perceptions of learner-centeredness?
3. To what extent do teachers' practices reflect learner-centeredness?
4. What problems and challenges do teachers encounter in implementing the new language policy?

The research results suggested that teachers have partial knowledge and some misconceptions about leaner-centeredness. Further, most teachers have low self-reported language proficiency, and have no training in learner-centred approaches.

Wisessang (1996) divided ninth grade students into experimental and control groups. The experimental group was taught through the process approach, while the control group teaching was based on the curriculum which focused on the product.

According to the test scores, students who were taught through the process approach wrote better than those who were taught through the product approach. Wisessang (1996) concluded that the process approach enhanced students' English writing ability.

In Puengpipattrakul's study (2014), the quantitative data from the scores of group writing tasks, socio-cognitive skills and self-assessments indicated that in addition to the students' improved writing ability, the process approach to writing enhanced socio-cognitive development to differing degrees. Data analysis from interviews with 24 students indicated that students viewed a process approach instruction as helpful to them because it helped them develop their affective, social, and cognitive processes. However, this study was limited to Thai students at the tertiary level, unlike the current thesis with primary level students.

Unfortunately, there are few studies of writing pedagogic implications in the classroom, and how these help EFL students improve their writing. Therefore, in process writing classrooms, teachers promote peer responses, as well as teacher-student and student-student (peer) conferences, so that students can learn from their peers in order to transform ideas into written texts.

The process approach was introduced in writing classrooms in Thailand at least fifteen years ago, according to studies done on process approaches (Chuendaechum, 1999; Tanuwongviwat, 1995; Thammasarnsophon, 1991). In process approaches, the teacher focuses on the process of writing and allows the students to explore their writing process through multiple drafts. However, more recently, the research of teaching writing and implementation of L2 writing pedagogies has been overlooked in Thai research. Furthermore, no studies address how power operates in the

selection of pedagogies borrowed from other nations. Consequently, it is important to investigate writing pedagogies again in this decade.

2.4.3 The genre-based approach

One of the important approaches introduced to Thai EFL is the genre-based approach. According to the English syllabus, there are some strands organised by genre, from writing greeting cards to composing a short essay. The genre-based approach was initially developed in Australia and used to teach writing in primary school (Martin & Rothery, 1980; 1981). It has been found to be an effective approach to teach writing both to native speakers and in teaching ESL to non-English speaking migrants.

Australian approaches to genre have been centred within a larger theory of language known as systemic functional linguistics, developed by Halliday (1961), and has since greatly influenced language theory and education in Australia. The Australian genre-based approach to the teaching of writing, which was developed by Martin and Rothery (1980; 1981) and their colleagues such as Christie (1984); Derewianka (1990); Gerot and Wignell (1994); Hammond (1987); and Hammond et al. (1992), was later applied to teaching literacy at other levels of education. This approach attempts to immerse students in an awareness of the social purposes, text structures and linguistic features in a range of factual genres.

The genre-based approach aims to teach writing through a particular text type, for example, a business letter, enabling learners to write for varied social contexts and with different roles and relationships between authors and readers (Hyland, 2003). In this approach, students are given an explanation of linguistic and rhetorical features first. Through explicit understanding of linguistic components and rhetorical patterns, students can learn how texts are structured and how grammar and

vocabulary are combined to create meaning. Then students realise that different texts have different purposes, and thus different organisations. This knowledge is a powerful tool through which students learn social rules to follow when they write. According to Hyland (2003), the genre-based approach presents linguistic and rhetorical forms in an integrated way within a context, because writing occurs in particular cultural and social contexts that require different grammatical choices.

However, in Thailand, the contexts in which genre-based approaches are applied differ among school levels. Implementation of this approach is mainly used in higher education, such as universities and colleges, with particular courses such as academic English writing courses (Kongpetch, 2003; Malakul & Bowering, 2006). This is perhaps because the genre-based approach has a significant positive impact on students' factual writing. Also, it emphasises the development of writing proficiency by teaching linguistic features and appropriate rhetorical patterns that are accepted in the target society, which are needed at the higher education level. Nevertheless, teaching writing through particular text types, such as letters, compositions, and specific topic essays is found at the primary school level curriculum in Thailand.

Conducting research with Thai university students through a genre-based approach to writing to develop academic business English writing, Foley (2013) found that the academic business English writing of the students had improved. The research recommendations encouraged writing teachers and students to recognise the importance of genre-based writing instruction and the development of writing in academic business English. Again, unlike the current thesis, the research addressed writing pedagogy at a different level of Thai education, and only in relation to a single pedagogy, without reference to power.

As previously mentioned in Chapter 1, these three approaches, namely the product-based approach, the process-based approach, and the genre-based approach, provide a clear background for understanding how Thai teachers of English introduce some approaches to writing classes and at the same time neglect others. For instance, teachers at the Thai tertiary level frequently apply a genre-based approach in academic writing classes (OBEC, 2008). Since each approach has some advantages to improve students' writing skills, rather than using them in isolation, teachers can adopt them into the writing classroom as interlinked approaches, incorporating the advantages of all approaches.

2.5 A WHOLE LANGUAGE APPROACH FOR THE EFL WRITING CLASSROOM

The whole language approach applied to the teaching of English has long been recognised in Thai schooling, including the work of McDonough (2004); Phadung et al. (2016); Pookcharoen (2009); and Vibulphol (2004). From a review of these studies and relevant research documents, the researcher argue here that a whole language approach offers advantages for Thai classrooms for several reasons related to the characteristics of this approach. Three key features of whole language approaches include that: a) phonics instruction is embedded in meaningful reading and writing activities, b) teachers are viewed as facilitators of learning rather than as directors, and c) portfolios and other performance-based assessments, as opposed to skill-based assessments, are the preferred methods of measuring progress (*The Greenwood Dictionary of Education*, 2001, p. 499).

There has been considerable debate regarding whether whole language theory is an approach, a method, a philosophy or a belief. Research shows that whole language is considered as an approach, because each teacher implements the theory

in their classroom according to their interpretation and their students' characteristics. Learning in whole language must be authentic, personalised, learner-centred and collaborative (Dixon & Tuladhar, 1996), since language is seen through an interactional perspective such as relations between teachers and students in the classroom. Students' experiences, their needs, interests and aspirations are also important. Language is always used in a social context and applied in real situations which are relevant to the students. There is an emphasis on learning authenticity, because applying what has been learned in a real situation, the subject will be internalised (Richards, 2006).

The view taken in this thesis is that whole language is not a teaching method, but an approach to learning that views language as a whole entity. Whole language focuses on experiences and activities that are relevant to students' lives and needs using authentic materials (Dixon & Tuladhar, 1996). Using a whole language approach involves choosing strategies and techniques that best fit the needs of the students, engaging them in what interests them, as well as teaching the essentials of the curriculum. However, there is no one method of teaching or learning that is suitable to all learners or teachers. The whole language approach can be used to facilitate the development of second language learning (Freeman & Freeman, 1994; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Weaver (1990) states that whole language is not a means of instruction, but a perspective that is harmonious with the psycholinguistic approach. Moreover, whole language was conceptualised and defined as a holistic approach of language learning (Goodman, 1991), which did not separate the activities of reading, writing, and speaking. Dixon and Tuladhar (1996) discuss the advantages of whole language approaches, which include the development of writing skills, and emphasis on

reading and writing in a meaningful context, and a focus on learners' needs, interests, skills, and progress. Mills (2005) elucidates that a key feature of whole language approaches was an emphasis on "the semantic or meaning-based features of literacy experiences", which are presented as "real-world or life-like literacy situations" (p. 69).

The whole language approach is a theory of thinking that supports children learning to read and write. Children learn language from birth onward in environments like home, and through immersion in the world of language, books, and nature. To develop as human beings, people start by developing their thinking and language. This helps humans to think continually. The whole language approach is divided into three components: (a) creating the environment with whole language, (b) the process of whole language learning, and (c) teaching within a language block of organised activities for reading and writing (ONEC, 1999; Thai-Israel Foundation, 2000).

The current English policy in Thailand 2008, which emerged from the National Education Act of 1999 (OBEC, 2008), dictates that Thai teachers of English should apply learner-centred learning and a communicative learning approach. However, a gap exists between the goals of the policy and what actually occurs in the classroom. There were few examples in my observation of either the communicative approach or the learner-centred approach being employed, which will be illustrated in Chapter 5. Teachers still tend to transmit knowledge to their students in a teacher-centred approach. The reasons for this may be due to the influence that the national examinations have on teachers' work, the suitability of imported teaching and learning approaches on Thai EFL contexts, as well as the need for better implementation of change.

Based on Richards and Rodgers (2001), the whole language theory was developed in the 1980s by a group of American educators to help children learn how to read, and later was extended to foreign language learning. In the Thai EFL context, this theory is based on the principle that a foreign language must be taught as a whole, without being divided into its components, such as grammar and vocabulary. The whole language principle (Goodman et al., 1992) also emphasises that students must learn how to read and write in a natural way, the same way they learn their native language, and gives more importance to activities which are relevant to the students.

Many of these activities are also common in other instructional approaches, such as in a very well-known Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). In contrast, whole language teaching is not the incidental use of such activities based on the topic of the lesson or an item in the syllabus, but applies English activities as part of an overall philosophy of teaching and learning that gives a new meaning and purpose to such activities (ONEC, 1999; Thai-Israel Foundation, 2000).

An example of this strategy involves students in a group discussion about a food recipe. Students in the group brainstorm to choose the recipe and give the directions to make that food. The skills practised in English focus on vocabulary, descriptive adjectives, and giving instructions. This technique encourages students to speak in English language in smaller groups, which poses less of a threat than speaking to the whole class. They also practise writing on a specific topic they are interested in. This is an example of whole language because students can see how English is used in recipes in a real world situation (Phadung et al., 2016).

It should be noted that whole language includes all the skills of language learning, including the integration of oral and written language skills. Moreover,

these skills must be taught in context and not through meaningless worksheet drills or rote learning exercises. This means in the whole language approach teachers always facilitate and never teach directly. However, building the skills of language learning certainly has a place within the whole language approach. Students need to become masters of spelling, punctuation and grammar in order to be proficient in a second language. The practice used in second language skill acquisition must be centred on the strengths of the learner, and not the dictates of a text. Thus, language is learned from whole to part (Cheng, 1998; Dawid, 2004; Dixon & Tuladhar, 1996).

A whole language approach seeks to engage the students in activities that originate with their own interests. While not a whole-language theorist, Mills and Exley (2014) argue, regarding writing and digital literacy practices, that teaching strategies should engage students with writing tasks that are situated in a digital world. Literacy teachers and researchers need to move from print-based approaches to writing with online practices to prepare students for the workplace. Students make their own choices; they choose, with guidance, what to read and what to write about. A whole language approach is learner-centred, and it advocates active participation by the student. This does not imply that the teacher does not have input concerning a given lesson; rather, greater responsibility is placed on the student with respect to knowledge achievement. Fundamentally, whole language permits the students to construct their own learning environment from within a collaborative environment, where the teacher acts as a facilitator. In this sense the whole language approach becomes a social tool as well as a learning tool for segments of language (Goodman, 1991).

A study conducted by Phadung et al. (2016) reveals that there are positive gains when using an interactive e-story to foster the early literacy learning of ethnic

minority children at the kindergarten level in a Thai context. The samples were 60 children who used the Pattani Malay language as a mother tongue, and who had little experience with Thai language – the language of instruction in kindergarten classrooms. They were divided into two groups. One classroom was the experimental classroom, in which the students learned with the interactive e-story. The other was a control classroom, in which the students learned with the paper version of the e-story. Both groups were taught using a whole language approach for 45 minutes per day over 8 weeks. A pre-test and post-test was designed to measure word recognition and story application, whereas a post-test was designed to assess only story comprehension. The research results show the children's improvement after using an interactive e-story, demonstrating a significant difference in word recognition and story application. However, this study was limited to using whole language for reading in early childhood classrooms.

To summarise, the whole language approach is applied in predominantly learner-centred environments, which seek to build on the prior knowledge of students (Freeman & Freeman, 1994). The role of a teacher is that of a facilitator who guides the learner (Patzelt, 1995). Thus, it is clear that the whole language approach encourages students to be cooperative in activities, such as brainstorming, reading and writing to re-tell the story (Dixon & Tuladhar, 1996), and engaging students in peer and small group discussions (McDonough, 2004). In a whole language classroom, writing is based on real texts and real life experiences (Weaver, 1990). Moreover, the focus of the writing class is on the whole writing process, not the product (Rigg, 1991). A student's portfolio, which is a collection of produced writing tasks, is also a tool of assessment in the whole language approach. These reviews of

the whole language approach and its application to teaching writing will further assist analysis of data in Chapter 5

2.6 CODE-SWITCHING IN EFL CLASSROOM

Code-switching, one of the unavoidable consequences of communication between different language varieties has long existed as a result of language contact, as widely observed in multilingual and multicultural communities. Most of the time, L1 is the language used in the classroom, resulting in both opportunities for, and threats to, developing communicative competence and learning English. Over the past decades, increasing interest in code-switching has triggered a variety of investigations and theoretical discussions, which have shed light on our understanding of bilingual speech behaviour (Forman, 2010; 2012).

Faced with conflicting opinions about whether code-switching is helpful or impedes learning the target language and the native language in the FLL classroom, a positive attitude towards L1 use in foreign language classrooms is reported in a study by Barnard and McLellan (2014). The study gives empirical evidence regarding the positive influence of teachers' use of code-switching in foreign language classrooms by investigating the general situation of code-switching in English classrooms. The study reported that the use of code-switching contributes to the teaching of EFL in Thai classrooms.

Codes refer to languages or varieties; therefore, this term is used for any kind of communicative system. Wardhaugh (2010) discusses several factors for 'code-switching', or language alternation, such as conversational strategies, power, political expression, solidarity, identity, and accommodation. In the present study, the researcher considered the functions of code-switching in accordance with power exercised when the teacher used Thai, to analyse teacher code-switching.

Forman's study (2015) reports an investigation of the general situation of code-switching between Thai and English languages. It shows that code-switching between Thai and English is a prevalent phenomenon in EFL classrooms, and that it plays a significant role in the English learning and teaching process. The study provides a detailed description and analysis on the general situation and positive role of code-switching from English to Thai in EFL classrooms. However, there are admittedly still some limitations, which may give some directions for further studies (Algarin-Ruiz, 2014; Choomthong, 2014; Chowdhury, 2012; Forman, 2005; Kang 2008).

In terms of using English (L2) and Thai (L1) in the EFL classroom, Forman (2010) has established a belief held by nearly all teachers that their performance, roles, and affective states vary according to whether they speak English or Thai in the classroom. Analysis brings out some implications of L1 to L2 performance for teachers' roles and 'identitism' such as 'opening', 'relaxing', and 'more serious'. Selection of language can be seen to inevitably function as role choice, with bilingual options now constituting a wider and qualitatively different repertoire of one's identity. For example, teachers might explain grammar and give instructions in English and then translate into Thai in order that students are exposed to English and clearly understand at the same time. Forman (2015) concludes that such a view must render illusory a simple notion of language as code (as in code-switching) and points to the blending or contrast of L1 and L2, which creates new performance possibilities, and new dimensions of self.

Furthermore, Forman (2012) reported in his study that 'teacher talk', which remains a primary feature of much education, plays a crucial role in EFL contexts where exposure to the second language is often confined to the language classroom,

and where local teachers generally share the first language with their students. His study seeks to establish broad descriptive categories which can be directly applied by teachers and teacher-educators to the analysis of bilingual classroom practices.

In relation to power, code-switching seems to play different important roles. The following are the research studies into code-switching and its relevant aspects. In Chowdhury's research (2012), the findings identify the reasons for teachers' code switching. These are not only ease of communication, explanation, and translation of the unknown terms, but also maintaining discipline in the classroom.

A research project by Gómez (2012) aimed to identify and analyse different identities of students in an EFL classroom and how this identity construction might have possible influences on students' language learning process. The results show that issues such as the use of L1 in the EFL classroom, the teacher's conception of language learning and teaching, and the silent fight for power among teacher and students, constitute important elements when constructing social and individual identities as learners within a given classroom community.

The use of code switching (between L1 and L2) as a pedagogical tool in EFL classrooms at the undergraduate level was explored and analysed in Mushtag and Rabbani's (2016) study. The reasons for English teachers' use of code switching vary depending upon the lesson topics, teaching experience, and the students' background knowledge. Code-switching can facilitate greater understanding and has the power to involve the learners in the lesson. Moreover, a controlled or limited use of code switching between L1 and L2 in EFL classrooms is useful both for teachers and learners, because it significantly enhances learners' success by supporting pedagogical processes.

As such, code-switching occupies an important role in a whole language approach in the Thai EFL classroom (Choomthong, 2014; Forman, 2005), particularly in terms of learner-centred learning and communicative language learning (Qian, Tian & Wang, 2009). It can be concluded from the previous studies in relation to the use of language code-switching that one of the functions of code-switching is to manage the classroom and to maintain the teacher's authority (Chowdhury, 2012; Gómez 2012; Mushtag & Rabbani, 2016). In particular, teachers' use of code-switching in the language classroom can be ambiguous, since on the one hand, it could be used to praise students' behaviours as reward power. On the other hand, it is associated with coercive power (Carspecken, 1996) in the way that teachers use L1 with students who misbehave to stress their disapproval. Thus, code-switching, which emerges as one dimension in the analysis of power in EFL classrooms, is further examined in Chapter 5 of this study.

2.7 RESEARCH ON POWER IN EFL CLASSROOMS

As previously mentioned in Chapter 1, studies that have examined how power relations impact on the teaching of writing pedagogies at a primary schooling level are few. However, certain studies into power relations and pedagogies found in the international literature are considered here. It should be noted that only research studies which are based on Foucauldian perspectives and which are associated with schools or classrooms, are summarised here.

Gallagher (2010) relied on Foucault's account of the Panopticon to undertake an empirical investigation of the specificities of surveillance in a primary school in Scotland. This ethnographic study, revealing how surveillance actually operated in this context, diverged from the panoptic program in two crucial ways:

1.) surveillance was discontinuous rather than total, and therefore, open to resistance and evasion, and

2.) surveillance was exercised through sound and hearing, as much as through vision.

The findings of the study indicate that surveillance was widespread, common and carried out by both teachers and students; however, it was also discontinuous, and its influence was limited and temporary. Gallagher's study also considered the limits of surveillance, its mal-functioning and 'blind spots'. He also suggested that one possible explanation for the discontinuity of surveillance in the school is that neither the teachers nor the students were fully committed to it. This means that schools may develop a more realistic level of surveillance that is 'good enough' to maintain an acceptable degree of order and facilitate teaching. For example, the teachers probably simply 'turned a blind eye' (or a deaf ear) to instances of mild recalcitrance, such as students talking whilst sharpening pencils, preferring to focus their energy on more substantial threats to the classroom order. His study offers the recommendation that future relevant research may focus on a much broader appreciation of the multi-sensorial nature of surveillance technologies using smell, touch, and taste, which might offer intriguing insights.

The ethnographic study carried out in the English reading class by Hanaki (2007) is concerned with how to establish a sense of discipline within EFL classrooms at the university level in Japan. The research question was "How can college English instructors bring a necessary sense of discipline (i.e., externally or internally imposed willingness to learn) into their classes?" To answer this question, Hanaki used Foucault's concepts of power (1972; 1977; 1978) within modern society to analyse and interpret the function of disciplinary power within EFL classrooms. The two case studies were an English reading class for sophomores and the English

communication class for juniors and seniors. Both English classes were designed for students majoring in British and American language and culture. Hanaki (2007) also mentioned that the radical distribution of pedagogical responsibilities and democratisation of classroom activities might be possible only given highly motivated students with sufficient English skills. Nevertheless, the finding confirmed that the two cases demonstrate some potential of the balanced use of disciplinary power within EFL classrooms, regarding creating a more engaged, learner-centred learning community. The study found that appropriate control of classroom activities is the key to success in any EFL class (or perhaps in any class).

Keawnuch's study (2008) investigated the possibility of applying a social pedagogy to the Thai EFL writing classroom at the tertiary level. The study reported the possibility of teaching agency and power in Thai EFL writing classrooms as a bridge for students to perceive that knowledge is socially constructed. Based on Dewey's theory, with respect to students' agency, Thai teachers of EFL writing are ready to move away from the conventional ways of teaching, such as direct instruction, to 'progressive' approaches of the kind that encourage students to learn widely and variously.

The research by Kaewnuch (2008) found that by teaching about power, the teachers assisted students to understand human power relations that affect writing in the classroom, and ways of living outside the classroom. Also, students would learn to adapt their writing to fit the rhetorical situation. It could be summed up that teaching to develop student agency and power over their writing, which utilised process approaches and social-epistemic pedagogies, could help prepare students for critical participation in society. The study recommended alternative approaches for Thai EFL teachers in particular, and teachers of writing in general, who wanted to

step beyond current-traditional rhetoric. Such conventional approaches predominantly taught language and writing as rule-governed, sometimes as the expense of developing student agency. It was recommended that by using process and social-epistemic methods, social pedagogy could be considered to release student agency, which was beneficial for teaching and learning.

The ethnographic research in 2013 by Yasemin Oral was carried out in an EFL classroom to investigate power relations in classroom discourse. Drawing on a Foucauldian understanding of power, the study explored how power is exercised and resisted in an EFL context. The focus of the research was on individual seatwork, during which students were working individually on written exercises, as one of the three basic modes of teaching/learning in the lessons observed. The data analysis brings together the teacher's perspectives and classroom power relations to generate insights into the interplay between the micro-level classroom discourse and the macro-level professional discourses in the school and wider school system. The observational data demonstrated how power was negotiated over and through different kinds of classroom behaviour, whereas the interview data revealed the relationship between the norms of classroom behaviour that the teacher sought to impose and the traditional teacher-centred, control and authority-based professional discourses. The findings of the study indicated that the teacher's assumptions and beliefs had a strong influence on how he acted and the ways he managed his classroom. These beliefs pertained to: 1.) how students learn best and easiest, 2.) 'problematic' and 'weak' students, 3.) seating arrangements, 4.) how students should act in the class, 5.) the use and avoidance of pair work, and 6.) the teacher's influence over the way students behaved in the class.

Similarly, Ruan and Ma (2013) conducted a case study to explore how to unveil the unbalanced power relations in the classroom setting by analysing data in classroom observation, audio recording and interviews from the phonological level, lexical level, conversational structure level, and generic structure level. The setting was an EFL classroom applying critical pedagogy. With respect to pedagogies and power relations in classroom discourse, Ruan and Ma (2013) argued that there were still unbalanced power relations in a critical pedagogy classroom. The study implied that teachers could potentially become enlightened with respect to ways of empowering both teachers and students in future educational activities. Future study and practice could shift from focusing on linguistic features to social, cultural, and historical impacts on language learning.

According to the review of previous studies, it can be assumed that there is a gap in the research on power relations and writing pedagogies in EFL classrooms, particularly at a primary school level. It is noted that in Gallagher's study (2010), surveillance of sound and vision in primary classroom space was a major focus. However, Hanaki's study (2007) was limited to the interpretation of disciplinary power, exercised in EFL classrooms at a university level. It seems that Oral's (2013) interpretation is aligned to the theoretical perspectives in the present study; nevertheless, her study overlooks the teacher's implementation of writing pedagogies and certain accounts, such as code-switching and the whole language approach to writing. Hence, this thesis aims to explore the relations between teachers' implementation of pedagogies and the exercise of power, exhibited in the EFL primary schooling context, thus filling this gap in the literature.

It is apparent that Foucault's notions of power, and the way in which he links relations of power and knowledge, provides one way of unpacking an understanding

of power that the narrative of critical theory adopts (Pike, 2008). There are significant connections between power, exhibited in classrooms and the implementation of writing pedagogies by teachers. Further conceptions of power (Foucault, 1977; 1982; 1984; 1991; 1995; Carspecken, 1996), along with the vital concept of governmentality (Foucault, 2000; 2002) will be provided in Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework. This will be applied to analyse actions in the social space of schools, because Foucault's notions of governmentality have the potential to advance theoretical understandings of the spatiality of school, and the social relationships that occur within them. In addition, there are relevant practical and policy implications that can impact the everyday lives of children that are both constituted by and constitutive of this space (Pike, 2008).

2.8 SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined relevant background to this study in terms of research relevant to the teaching of English in the Thai education system. In relation to the international research on the subject of EFL pedagogies and strategies for bilingual learners (Baker, 2012; Forman, 2012), English language learning becomes a more complex issue once we consider the relationships between language and culture (Baker, 2009). Further, it is important to consider language and literacy curriculum and the globalised age.

The chapter has shown that English has been taught for a long time in Thailand as an important and compulsory foreign language from primary to university levels of education. An overview of the history of teaching English and curriculum reform in Thailand, especially at a primary school level, was presented. Teaching English in the Thai context is explained in the section regarding to teacher training and learner backgrounds, which is relevant to understanding the selection and training of Thai

teacher participants in this research, and the contextual factors that influence their pedagogical decision-making.

It has also painted a broad overview of ESL approaches to teaching writing in Thai EFL contexts; that is, teaching writing as a product, as a process, and language use in its context. In this chapter, the researcher reviewed literacy in relation to English in foreign language writing instruction, which is influenced by contemporary Western writing approaches. As evident from the literature review, there are actually few studies on the implementation of the ESL writing approach in EFL settings, and even fewer that analyse the ideological nature of the English writing classroom. Research in Thailand needs to be explored on account of the influence of the students' educational backgrounds and cultural perspectives on the implementation of the writing approach. Problems may arise due to differences such as rhetorical, educational and cultural backgrounds, when one blindly uses an approach that is successful in a different setting.

Drawing on Foucault's account of power, Luke (1995) suggests that sociolinguistic and ethno-methodological discourse analysis yields detailed studies of language in classrooms, supplanting psychological 'deficit' models with descriptions of cultural difference and the regulatory effects of schooling and classroom language (p. 8).

This research examines how issues of power and pedagogical practices influenced the teaching of writing to Thai English Foreign Language (EFL) students at the primary school level. This chapter has provided a theoretical frame of reference for the particular writing pedagogies and power relations likely to be observed in the Thai EFL classroom. Again, it is obvious that it is necessary to carry out research that investigates how power is implicated in EFL writing pedagogies

within the context in which they are implemented, and the implications of this study will be important in furthering the success of government policy in respect of English language teaching in Thailand. Chapter 3 will further provide a theoretical framework based on Foucault's concepts of power relations and governmentality.

Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework

3.0 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the literature related to writing pedagogy and teaching English in the Thai context, demonstrating a gap in the literature and arguing for the importance of this study. Silva (1990) suggests that ESL and EFL writing instruction needs to address the roles of audience, writing purpose, and the social and cultural context of L2 writing. Although there are research studies aiming to improve students' writing performance through different teaching methods, there has been little interest given to teachers' implementation of writing pedagogies at the primary school level, especially in Thai EFL contexts (Chuenchaichon, 2014; Modehiran & Krittawattanawong, 2009). In order to investigate teachers' implementation of writing instruction used in EFL teaching, this research was conducted to answer the following research question, justified in Chapter 1 and recapped here, which has also shaped the conceptual framework of the study:

"How is power implicated in EFL writing pedagogies in Thai primary classrooms?"

This research investigates the pedagogies enacted by Thai EFL teachers of writing in the classroom. The theoretical framework draws upon critical sociology applied to the field of teaching and learning English, particularly attending to the principles of Foucault. It also draws on sociocultural perspectives of English language teaching, following Street (1995; 2001; 2006), Gee (1996; 2008), and others, because critical sociology is oriented toward uncovering the ideological nature of social practices, in institutions of power, such as schooling. It is clear that schools are recognised as "institutions of social control" (Gallagher, 2011, p. 48).

Luke (1992, p. 107) states, "the development of studies of classroom interaction has provided educators with alternative criteria and models for examining practice". Mills (2015) also asserts that the distinctive focus of sociocultural literacy approaches is to explore how literacy is practised in communities, and used in everyday spheres of activity. This perspective is important in literacy studies, because ethnographies of language learning used by participants in communities outside of classrooms, such as in their homes, provide insights into cultural patterns that influence how we view school learning (Athanases & Heath, 1995; Mills, 2011).

Critical sociology draws from sociocultural theory to illustrate how language reflects culture. As language is an integral part of the social and cultural context, it is, as Gee (1996, p. vii) observes, attached to "social relations, cultural models, power and politics". As Street (2001, p. 430) states, "an understanding of literature requires detailed, in-depth accounts of actual practice in different cultural settings". The sections that follow, therefore, aim to highlight how power and governmentality operate in the Thai literacy context and how they influence writing pedagogies.

3.1 CRITICAL SOCIOLOGY APPLIED TO LINGUISTICS

Critical applied linguistics seeks to describe the associations between the study of language and society. In terms of L2 pedagogy, it becomes significant to explore the complex social and cultural perspectives that impact on learning, and to examine methods as being contextual. Canagarajah (2008) states, "no sensible professional can practise ELT without being alert to the heterogeneity of English varieties…and the values behind methods and materials, and unequal classroom relationships and roles" (p. 213). Therefore, the examination of methods and approaches to teaching English begins with seeking to understand how power operates in the choices that are made by educators and education policy and curriculum makers. For example,

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which has been developed in contexts other than Thailand with its local pedagogical practices and beliefs, raises the problem of the imposition of teaching approaches (Baker, 2008; 2012). Moreover, the lack of oral communication in the target language, that is English in Thailand, can be one of the weaknesses of the grammar translation method, which has been heavily relied upon in English language classrooms in Thailand (Forman, 2005).

To understand how power operates within EFL teaching, a short background to the sociocultural aspects of language and literacy within the Thai context is useful. The lens of critical sociology applied to linguistics, which focuses on the social, cultural, and historical antecedents of language use, helps to analyse the complexities of power which influence Thai EFL contexts in discernible ways. For example, Pennycook (2001) noted that it is important to study how English is appropriated and resisted by people in different parts of the world, since English is used as a primary language of education, finance, globalisation, science, and technology. Even though English plays the role of a foreign language in Thailand, with 10 per cent of the population speaking English (Canagarajah, 2006, as cited in Iyer, Kettle, Luke & Mills, 2014), it is a compulsory subject from a primary school level to higher education (Wongsothorn, 2002). Consequently, there is a global trend for English to be introduced in all schools and at earlier grades, is found in Thailand as in other countries.

English, which is used by the Thai people as a foreign language, has gained wide acceptance as a means for academic achievement and upward mobility. It has been argued that a detailed study of the use of English in Thailand needs to be conducted (Dueraman, 2012; Kaur, 2015; Limtong, 1991; McDonough, 2004; Prasongsook, 2010; Watcharapunyawong & Usaha, 2013). It has been posited that

the causes of unsuccessful English teaching in Thailand are that Thai people were often too shy to speak and relied on rote memorisation for learning (Mackenzie, 2002). Baker (2012) suggested that English in Thailand is used as a *lingua franca*; therefore, it is necessary to understand the intercultural context for communication or communication across cultures. An example of this is the social, cultural and language interrelationships between English native-speaking countries and countries in which English is not the dominant or official language (Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 2003).

EFL classrooms are spaces where forms of power are circulated. Foucault's theories of power and governmentality, which view power as 'a set of relations' (1980, p. 198), are useful to examine actions regarding the exercises of power in classroom contexts. Considering the applications of sociocultural and critical approaches within the field of language studies, Carspecken's (1996) typology of interactive power is used for analysing power relations in classroom interactions.

A sociocultural perspective in English language teaching

Sociocultural perspectives of literacy are related to socio-linguistic conceptualisations concerning the ways in which language use varies according to contexts (Bakhtin, 1986), and the relationship between language use and power. Some of the earliest examples of socio-cultural perspectives of language were ethnographies of communication (Hymes, 1994). Iyer, Luke, Kettle and Mills (2014) trace the origins of ethnographies of communication in the sociocultural tradition that have a long legacy in studies of writing. Ethnographies of communication typically apply discourse analysis to demonstrate differentiated forms, dialects, discourses and accents of English that are used across different speech communities.

Literacy development in multilingual contexts is affected by many interrelated factors (Durgunoglu & Verhoeven, 1998). To make these perspectives clearer, it is also necessary to use different methodologies, such as case studies, ethnographic observations of communities, families, and classrooms, and experimental manipulations. Gee (1996, p. vii) states that language "always comes fully attached to 'other stuff': to social relations, cultural models, power and politics, perspectives on experience, values and attitudes, as well as things and places in the world". This is the sociocultural view of literacy practices through which the data in this thesis is contextualised.

The sociocultural approach to language is important to this research because according to Street (2001), various perspectives from anthropology and socio-linguistics assist researchers to focus on the ways in which people use reading and writing, and how these vary in different contexts. Therefore, a great deal of sociocultural research in literacy is built on an assumption that "an understanding of literacy requires detailed, in-depth accounts of actual practice in different cultural settings" (Street, 2001, p. 430). According to sociocultural theory, all learning is situated in social practice. Thus, a sociocultural approach to literacy focuses on the importance of particular skills in contexts of social and literate practices (Warschauer, 1997). Language learning can be examined from the context of participation in social practices, such as the social interactions of teachers and students in classroom settings.

Sociocultural perspectives of English language teaching contribute to analysing sociocultural communities of practice, especially in the classroom as a community of practice that brings together students from diverse linguistic and cultural groups. According to Street (2006), literacy practices are always social from the outset. The

social interaction between teachers and students, and the discourses that are used, are vital to English language learning, and particular attention must be given to building on the discursive knowledge of those who are most distant from the dominant cultural discourses (Mills, 2006). Further, Mills and Unsworth (2015) state that the social structure of schooling can both enable and constrain the recontextualisation of literacy practices as curriculum knowledge. Thus, socio-cultural perspectives assist the illustration of the analysis and discussion of power relations produced through pedagogical practices in the Thai EFL classroom.

This understanding of sociocultural perspectives offers an important lens to analyse and interpret the data. In this research, teachers and students were observed and examined in-depth through an ethnographic approach conducted in a primary school situated in an area of Chiang Mai. Street (2006) warns that it is not enough "to extol simply the richness and variety of literacy practices made accessible through such ethnographic detail: we also need bold theoretical models that recognise the central role of power relations in literacy practices" (p. 430). Hence, this research seeks to identify the power relations that problematise the teaching of EFL writing in Thailand.

This study draws on the concept of sociocultural perspectives in order to view teaching and learning as social interactions. There are studies about the impact of sociocultural backgrounds of English Language Learners (ELLs) on language learning (Baker, 2008; Brown, 2001; Cong & Derderian-Aghajanian, 2012; Forman, 2007; Goldenberg et al., 2011; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Khuvasanond, 2013; Lapananon, 2011; Teng, 2015; Ziegahn, 2001). Yet, the study of power relations in EFL writing classrooms has received little attention, particularly in Thai primary schooling. The relationships of power that become evident when Western pedagogies

operate in the Thai EFL context can be best understood by observing the pedagogies which teachers apply in the primary classroom, and by comprehending how teachers connect what they do to educational policies. It is important to focus on the relationship between language use and power in literacy practices, because social practices are ideological, and cannot be separated from the power relations that give rise to, and maintain, the teaching of literacy practices.

This is a significant point when Thai contexts of English teaching pedagogies are viewed as ideologically determined through the social power that is vested in such pedagogies. Drawing on a Foucauldian analysis of power to analyse the teaching of English writing in Thai primary schooling is a crucial point of this research. There are several significant studies that draw on Foucault's concepts of power to examine the sorts of power relations exercised in classrooms, such as Oral (2013); Ruan and Ma (2013); and in schooling contexts e.g. Clapham (2015); Ford (2003); Gallagher (2011); Pike (2008); Pitsoe and Letseka, (2013); Teo and Osborne (2014). These studies contribute to an understanding of power and its operations to be extended and problematised in the Thai English teaching context.

3.2 POWER

There are many interpretations and definitions of power. For instance, in terms of power relations in teaching, French and Raven (1959) identified five types of teacher power: attractive, expert, reward, position, and coercive power. Similarly, Ziegahn (2001) noted that teachers legitimately have power, which is influenced by certain cultural patterns or values in institutions. Furthermore, the culture in which a text is used determines the genre or social purpose of the text (Derewianka, 1990); consequently, language and culture are inseparably linked. Since cultural knowledge is transmitted through social interactions (Carspecken, 1996), there are some aspects

of social power that are associated with teaching English to English Language Learners (ELL).

Foucault's notion of power shifted over the duration of his work from an earlier conception of power as being vested in an institution, to power being present in relations, and being present only when enacted. His earlier conception of power (*Discipline and Punish*, 1977) argued how various institutions exert power. Using the 'Panopticon' as an ideal conception of power, he illustrated how there is "automatic" and "dis-individualised power" through various mechanisms such as the "gaze, visibility, and surveillance". His later work emphasised how power is present in all individuals, and that power is a "set of relations" (Foucault, 1980, p. 198).

According to Foucault (1977 as cited in Balan, 2010), power is not essentially something that institutions possess and use oppressively against individuals and groups. Instead, power, as Foucault (1977) discusses, is seldom "one-sided" (Deacon, 2006, p. 184), which means teachers in the school are caught up in, and subjected to its operations, just as much as the students over whom teachers' power is exercised (Foucault, 1987). As Foucault (1983) observes:

> It is a total structure of actions brought to bear upon possible actions; it incites, it induces, it seduces, it makes easier or more difficult; in the extreme it constrains or forbids absolutely; it is nevertheless always a way of acting upon an acting subject or acting subjects by virtue of their acting or being capable of action. A set of actions upon other actions (p. 789).

Foucault (1982) tries to move the analysis one step beyond viewing power as the plain oppression of the powerless by the powerful, and examines how it operates in day-to-day interactions between people and institutions. In other words, Foucault's version of power views most aspects covered in real life situations where one could

influence others in all social actions (Foucault, 1982). Power (2011, p. 49) states that power is exercised where disciplinary knowledge is formed. In addition, power is ultimately located at the individual level. In this respect, power as a tool of social reproduction shapes individuals to be able to play a part in power operations. Schools are institutions for the social reproduction of social identities and unequal relations of power (Pitsoe & Letseka, 2013, p. 27). These various forms of power are now examined to illustrate how they apply to this study.

Panopticism: Space and Power

Foucault's (1984) metaphor of the Panopticon is used in this thesis to explain how power is exercised in social institutions. Foucault described the design of the Panopticon, which was to make prisoners' cells visible to the guard or to be easily viewed by the guard. As noted by Gallagher (2010, p. 263) "the Panopticon is a kind of conscience-building device whose design, for Foucault, typifies the functioning of disciplinary power in modern western societies", especially as surveillance has become central to institutions.

Briefly, the Panopticon is a type of prison where each prisoner is located in small cells with an observation tower as its centre (Foucault 1977, pp. 195-228). Each cell is separated from every other and is designed to face the observation tower. While guards can observe each prisoner anytime from small holes in the observation tower, the prisoners cannot see either the guards or the other prisoners (Gallagher, 2013; Hanaki, 2007; Pike, 2008; Rajagopal, 2014). The guards might not always be observing the prisoners; however, the prisoners never know whether the guards are actually observing them or not. As a result, the prisoners feel under observation by the guards at all times.

Foucault's concept of Panopticism (1977) outlines a model of power which can be applied to educational institutions such as schools. Schools are spaces where forms of power are exercised (Gallagher, 2010). Hence, it could be argued that schools are panoptic sites providing a wide range of observations, surveillance, and gaze. The classroom is a space enabling continuous visibility to the teachers who use gaze to create surveillance and influence over their students, which may be physically immediate or more distant, and experienced through self-surveillance. As Gallagher (2011, p. 49) observes, surveillance, a central feature, is "a form of power that is exercised primarily through watching *over*, or overseeing, others". Surveillance is an important technique of watching everyday life in the school (Foucault, 1977); further Foucault states, "A relation of surveillance, defined and regulated, is inscribed at the heart of the practice of teaching, …" (Foucault, 1979, p. 176).

Self-surveillance in Foucault's terminology (1982) is defined as self-monitoring that results from the fact that one can never tell if the guard is watching, because the guard stays out of view. Further, Ford (2003) asserts that self-surveillance is viewed as guard-like behaviour (p. 10). The prisoners must constrain their own behaviour in accordance with the rules put into effect by the gaze. Thus, it can be said that the prisoner enacts disciplinary power, normalisation, and in Foucault's words, he reinstitutes himself as a docile body.

As Gallagher (2010) observes, the social production of space in a primary school produces the wider issue of power, and its exercise in the everyday activities of the school (Gallagher, 2010). For example, teacher positioning in the classroom space reinforces forms of power, for example hierarchical power and self-surveillance.

When the teacher stood at the back of the room and the students were facing the front, they did not know if the teacher was watching, so they monitored their own actions as a form of self-surveillance. As Foucault says "This is perhaps the most diabolical aspect of the idea…this is a machine in which everyone is caught, those who exercise the power as well as those who are subjected to it" (Foucault 1996a, pp. 233-234). Foucault (1977, p. 187) says, "It is the fact of being constantly seen, of being always able to be seen, that maintains the disciplined individual in his subjection". In this study, surveillance, or hierarchical observation becomes essential for analysing observational data, such as the teacher's surveillance in the classrooms.

Applying Foucault's notion of surveillance, it can be argued that Thai EFL classrooms are spaces of surveillance, because there is constant hierarchical observation and self-surveillance. The students studied and did their work according to the teacher's instruction. For example, drawing on one preliminary example from this study, the teacher separated all the students into groups of five students, distributing to them worksheets of a reading passage with exercises. This suggests that along with the teacher's gaze, the students' desks facing each other provided another means of gazing; that is, the students' own surveillance. At the same time, they were watching others' behaviours and watching themselves to behave appropriately.

Foucault (1977) defined the word "gaze" as "normalising gaze" which manifests as the "subjection of those who are perceived as objects and the objectification of those who are subjected" (p. 184). Further, Luke (1992) argued that "gaze is most visible in the incarcerating processes of criminology and psychiatry, but equally manifest in such institutional practices as psychometrics, psychoanalysis, schooling, …" (p. 111). Drawing on Foucault's metaphor, Thai schools operate as

the “Panopticon”, given the ways in which surveillance works as a form of disciplinary power.

In accordance with disciplinary power, Foucault (1991, p. 176) states that power relations of surveillance in social interactions, “defined and regulated, are inscribed at the heart of the practice of teaching, not as an additional or adjacent part, but as a mechanism that is inherent to it and which increases its efficiency”. Gore, drawing on the notion of surveillance (2002; 2006), observes how in her research sites the micro-level techniques of power were enacted through surveillance which was “supervising, closely observing, watching, threatening to watch, and avoiding being watched” (p. 169). Gallagher (2010) observed that the students could look around to see whether the teacher was watching them or not. This means that surveillance was difficult to conceal; in other words, surveillance is generated in the classroom space, both by teachers and children.

Similarly, Oral (2013) reports in her study that the constant surveillance of the students by the teacher is evident in the classroom. The teacher was either watching over the students from his seat at the front of the class or standing at the very back in a relatively unobtrusive way, or circulating around the classroom to see what students were doing or to see if they needed help. Moreover, surveillance was expressed, not only in the teacher’s behaviours and actions, but also in the organisation of the classroom. For example, the arrangement of the classroom space prevented students both from moving around and, except for those sitting in ‘adjacent desks’, from communicating with each other.

In conclusion, Foucault’s account of Panopticism (1977) offers a point of analysis of how space influences the exercise of power. Foucault (1977, p.27) argues that power exists everywhere and comes from everywhere. Space allows the

researcher to explore the relationship between pedagogical practices and teachers, and the exercises of power, which result from observations. Power becomes more efficient through the mechanisms of observation (Foucault, 1977).

3.2.1 Disciplinary power

Foucault (1977) identifies disciplinary power as the power which seeks "to train and discipline the body" of people (p. 70). Disciplinary power 'writes' upon the 'docile' body of a person, "taking that body as its target in order to develop and train the movements, gestures, attitudes, and signs that it 'emits'" (Foucault, 1991, pp. 160-162). This is similar to the discipline within an institution, such as in school, in prison, and in the factory (Wright, 2000). It is a type of power which comprises a whole set of instruments, techniques, procedure, levels of application, and targets (Hoffman, 2010). An example of how disciplinary power is exercised in the Thai education system is the role of the teacher's use of power in the classroom with respect to effective learning. Power is an individual's capacity to influence another person to do something (Foucault, 1977). Thus, in the classroom, if a teacher does not employ disciplinary power, that teacher cannot manage the teaching instructions that govern the students' learning (Nguyen et al., 2006; Perryman, 2006).

Discipline is a mechanism of power which regulates the behaviour of individuals in the social body. This is done by regulating the organisation of space, of time, and people's activity and behaviour. As Foucault (1977) observes,

> In organising 'cells', 'places' and 'ranks', the disciplines create – complex spaces that are at once architectural, functional and hierarchical. It is spaces that provide fixed positions and permit circulation; they carve out individual segments and establish operational links; they mark places and indicate values; they guarantee

> the obedience of individuals, but also a better economy of time and gesture (p. 148).

Power is enforced with the aid of complex systems of surveillance. Foucault (1977) emphasises that power is not discipline; rather discipline is simply one way in which power can be exercised. Foucault (1991, p. 272) examines how discipline, as a type of self-regulation encouraged by institutions, becomes the norm in modern societies and acts for the individual as an instrument to change reality and himself: "We must cease once and for all to describe the effects of power in negative terms: it "excludes", it "represses", it "censors", it "abstracts", it "masks", it "conceals". As Teo and Osborne (2014, p. 235) observe, "disciplinary power is used to 'train' and to 'make' individuals, transforming them into objects and instruments in the exercise of power".

Power is not all negative: as Foucault (1991, p. 243) states, "…power produces; it produces reality; it produces domains of objects and rituals of truth…". Institutions use various types of power enforcement, with specific mechanisms and techniques (Foucault, 1977). Foucault shows how the hospital, the clinic, the prison and the educational institutions share some of these disciplinary techniques and practices (Dreyfus & Rabinow, 1983, Sudradjat, 2012). For example, in Thai schools, teachers line up students at the door of the classroom, like soldiers in a march. Teachers seat students in rows so that they can observe the directions of the students' gaze (Oral, 2013), to ensure that it is fixed on the teachers during direct instruction. The teacher continually monitors the movements of students around the writing classroom.

One of the control activities in Thai schools is the division of time in the school timetable, which allocate time to the learning of English. This timetable is

implemented because the government, school leaders, and educators expect to see students study each subject within a set location, such as PE (Physical Education) in the football field, or music lessons in the classroom, and also enables teachers to know the whereabouts of students. Similarly, curriculum policy mandates that English be taught two periods a week as a minimum requirement for primary school students.

For Foucault (1977), discipline is a set of strategies, procedures and behaviours associated with certain institutional contexts, which then pervade the individual's general thinking and behaviour. In terms of the timetable, a rigid model operates in Thai schools that ensures that "precision and application are, with regularity, the fundamental virtues of disciplinary time" (Foucault, 1977, p. 151).

Foucault (1977) points out that power relations can be examined by tracing the origins of modern mechanisms of discipline and control. In Foucault's words, the exercise of disciplinary power is productive rather than prescriptive. Foucault stated: "What makes power hold good, what makes it accepted, is simply the fact that it doesn't only weigh on us as a force that says no, but that it traverses and produces things, it induces pleasure, forms of knowledge, produces discourse" (Foucault, 1977, p. 119), in the Thai context producing appropriate school-based knowledge.

Foucault's ideas of disciplinary power (1977) relate to the self-regulation of individuals, since disciplinary power is used to shape behaviour according to a set of norms. It is a way to ensure that people conduct and direct themselves in certain circumstances. Foucault (1977) argues that the discipline of the body leads to the discipline of the soul, so that the person can be incorporated into society. Disciplinary power is categorised into three elements, which are hierarchical observation, normalising judgment, and examination (Foucault, 1977). Teo and

Osborne (2014) confirm that it is imperative that these three elements depend on one another to achieve the functioning of disciplinary power.

Hierarchical observation refers to the various methods of surveillance that encourage people to act in certain ways by virtue of the fact that they are being observed (Foucault, 1991). As noted by Foucault (1991, p. 170), the exercise of discipline presupposes a mechanism that coerces by means of observation. For example, the Education Committee in Thailand has to produce and revise the national curriculum every ten years (Ministry of Education, 2008). Students must follow the teacher's instruction to complete the test within the time given, that is, one that operates through time. The interactions between teachers and students in the classroom demonstrate that the classroom is a space through which disciplinary power operates. Hanaki (2007) noted that hierarchical observation functions top-down, which means power is reinforced by those supervising and in the Thai context, "eyes that must see without being seen" (Foucault, 1977, p. 171).

Education in Thailand has a strong tradition of teacher-directed instruction and it is very important that students show their respect to teachers in the classroom. This is due to the fact that Buddhist teaching emphasises that "teachers are to be esteemed as those who provide knowledge while students are the ones who receive them" (*The Dhammakaya Foundation*, 2005, p. 73). Therefore, the relationship between teacher and students implies that students are required to obey and pay high respect to their teachers. Thai society is based on hierarchical patron-client relationships where "a number of subordinates support a leader who holds their allegiance by successfully advancing their interests" (Thongrin, 2002, p. 45).

Thais show not only the relationship between speakers in terms of authority, but also their status through the use of given linguistic patterns, such as calling a

teacher “Khun Kru or Ajarn”. The title “Khun” means Sir or Madam while “Kru or Ajarn” means teacher. In education, this cultural concept can be seen in the relationship between teachers and students both in the classroom and outside the classroom. This power or authority of the teacher promoted teacher-centeredness throughout generations of Thai education history. Therefore, drawing on Foucault, Thai schools as “disciplinary institutions” are a “machinery of control” – that operates through disciplinary gaze (Foucault, 1977, p. 172) and through a relay of power. Further, as Foucault explains (1977, p. 176), through drawing on hierarchised, continuous surveillance, disciplinary power becomes an “integrated system”, and is a “multiple, automatic and anonymous power” that operates both top down and bottom up.

Normalising judgment means a penal mechanism within a disciplinary system, in which each institution has its own laws, its specific rules, and its particular forms of judgement (Foucault, 1991). Normalising judgment also refers to individual actions in a whole state, community, and institutions, and differentiates individuals from each other by sets of regulations (Foucault, 1977). It measures and compares individuals and places them in a hierarchical system (Elliott, 1999). Therefore, this element provides “a norm or standard that people are expected to achieve, punishing those who do not” (Foucault, 1977, p. 27). In the writing classroom setting, it means that students can be rewarded or punished to align their learning behaviours to the norms through sets of activities, teaching and learning procedures.

While research on how power operates in the Thai educational context is limited (Tananuraksakul, 2011), research conducted by Tananuraksakul examined power relations and pedagogy based on Gore’s (2002) “implications of teaching”, and its effects on identity confidence and anxiety in Thai students of EFL. The

findings show that teachers of EFL students need to be consciously aware of power relations produced through pedagogy, and to embrace and exercise their power knowingly. The teacher also needs to know which types of power e.g. attractive, expert, reward, position and coercive (French & Raven, 1959) they possess and can use to suit their group of students. Based on this research, teachers can positively influence their students' "identity confidence" and "identity anxiety" in spoken language and in their attitudes towards the teaching and learning of English (Tananuraksakul, 2011, p. 169).

As reported in Chapter 5, the teacher Sopin sometimes encouraged students to keep practising, saying 'Keep writing. You're doing well', 'Yes, that's right!', and 'Keep going…'. Anderson and Grinberg (1998, p. 335) explained that students will be exposed to discourses of the good worker, the rules of team play, and will learn to accept authority and the norms and goals of the social institution. When teachers circulate among students to check their writing exercises, they may make remarks such as 'Good job', 'Well done', or 'Very impressive writing'. These teacher actions are described as normalising discourses in schools that tell students what kinds of behaviours are rewarded. According to Scheer (2011), rewards encourage students to perform the desired forms of behaviour, while even "small infractions are to be met" with punishment (p. 8).

Examination represents the techniques of an observing hierarchy and normalising judgment. It is those activities that allow people to be presented to the hierarchical observation of power, and subjected to a normalising judgment (Foucault, 1977, p. 184).

In the school, classroom activities combine these techniques with frequency as an act of disciplinary power, and students are rewarded or punished in various ways

through these practices. In addition, it could be said that the classroom teacher observes students' behaviours through a set of activities, assignments, or tests. The accumulation of such information can allow for an entire group of people to be known, and eventually for the development of a new discipline or field of knowledge, such as EFL writing pedagogy. Examination provides new information about students: students are observed, assessed, and evaluated, and then the results of examination yield a form of feedback to the teacher, to the school, and later to the Ministry of Education.

The exercise of power produces methods for "accumulating knowledge", and provides "tools for observation" (Foucault, 1977, p. 102). For example, Foucault's famous examination of disciplinary power demonstrates that the enactment of techniques of power over people, such as through observing them in disciplinary institutions, including the prison, military barracks, or schools, construct those people as "objects that can be known as individual cases" (Foucault, 1991, p. 251). In this study, Thai EFL classrooms were observed and Foucault's theory of disciplinary power was applied through the techniques of hierarchical observation, normalising judgement, and examination (Foucault, 1977). The ultimate aim of power is "controlling" the manner in which a body operates, "imposing upon" it "docility and utility" (Foucault, 1977, pp. 136-137).

'Docile bodies' pertains to the training and control of the subject based on norms and regulations by exercising techniques of disciplinary power, such as through hierarchical observation, normalising judgement, and examination (Foucault, 1977; 1982). This application of the docile body is useful to explain how the students, viewed as the subjects, are trained and directed in the school (Wright, 2000). Foucault (1996) argued that the use of training and correction to produce

docile, useful bodies is defined as a more efficient economic punishment expressed in the Panopticon.

Reward power and punishment

Foucault (1977) did not use the term 'reward power'; instead he used the words 'discipline rewards' to explain the system which operates in the process of training and correction (p. 180). This process creates award ranks by differentiating individuals and ranking them in a hierarchical system, such as grades given to students. In a schooling setting, it is important to teachers to produce the docile bodies with regard to multiple forms of training. Foucault (1977) suggested that the teacher must try to use rewards more often than penalties. This is because rewards encourage the 'lazy' students to be rewarded, such as the teacher's compliments, ranks, and marks.

On the other hand, in terms of the docile and disciplined body, it can be interpreted that the individuals who are marked by discipline rewards or punishment are being normalised to be more productive. This means that students are encouraged to learn, to behave, and to be diligent. For example, students are told to do the tasks and they will do so, because either the teacher speaks in a friendly voice and warm manner, or students' tasks will be marked for 'good' behaviour. 'Discipline rewards' in this sense mean the body being disciplined becomes productive as the individual body desires to place in a higher rank or award. Simultaneously, it can be assumed that 'discipline rewards' given to the bodies as punishment, since ranking in a lower grade level in a classroom is a form of penalty. As Foucault (1977) said "Rank in itself serves as a reward or punishment" (p. 181).

In sum, exercising reward power over students can take many forms; for instance, statements such as, "Well done, Ann", "Good Job", and "You've got one

point, Joe" are usually employed to reward students' behaviour through verbal reward power. The example of using ranks or grades (Foucault, 1977) has a double role, that is, it marks the gaps, hierarchical qualities, skills and aptitudes, whereas it also punishes and rewards.

For Foucault (1977), discipline is a set of strategies, procedures and behaviours related to certain institutional contexts, which is disseminated through the individual's general thinking and behaviour. Foucault (1977) states regarding discipline, that punishment is only one element of 'a double system' – that is, 'gratification', 'satisfaction' and 'punishment' (p. 170). According to Foucault (1977, pp. 130-131), discipline is exercised to coercively train the body as subject. It is important to understand that the individual body, being subject to change and trained is called a 'docile' body. For example, students become aware of their observed behaviours by teachers who hold sorts of power, thus they decide to follow teacher's teaching instruction and produce good behaviours according to school's rules and regulations. On the other hand, students, observing themselves in a similar ways become discipline because they produce a pattern of behaviours in a classroom. Coercive power is exercised in order to 'trace the body'– the students in schooling.

Punishment, according to Foucault (1977) is to change behaviour to the standard norms of the society. This could be done by what Foucault says is "a more efficient economy of punishment" (p. 201), such as the use of techniques of disciplinary power. In other words, through the mechanics of a training disciplinary punishment is created as Foucault states "to punish is to exercise" (1977, p. 180). In the Thai schooling context, punishment could be in the forms of 'rank', which is used to separate 'good' students from 'lazy' students. For example, in the primary school level in Thailand, teachers often put name cards of 'good' students on the

notice board related to either how many ‘correct’ answers they give or how they behave.

3.2.2 Pastoral power

According to Foucault (1982), pastoral power is exercised by the Church. It rests on the Church’s power to assure individual salvation in the next world. It is linked with the notion of individualism. As Foucault (2007, p. 126) states, “pastoral power is…entirely defined by its beneficence; its only raison d’etre is doing good, and in order to do good. In fact the essential objective of pastoral power is the salvation (salut) of the flock”.

However, in modern times, this form of power consists of the convergence of a very particular set of techniques, rationalities and practices designed to govern or guide people’s conduct as individual members of a population. This idea of politically organising the day-to-day conduct of the population is borrowed from the metaphor of the care of a shepherd for his flock and originated in Egyptian, Assyrian, and Mesopotamian cultures (Fendler, 2010; Foucault, 1998; O’Farrell, 2007).

As Foucault (2000a, p. 292) suggests:

> In human relationship […] power is always present: I mean a relationship in which one person tries to control the conduct of the other. So I am speaking of relations that exist at different levels, in different forms; these power relations are mobile, they can be modified, they are not fixed once and for all. These power relations are thus mobile, reversible, and unstable.

Foucault (1982) used the metaphor of the pastor (ministers or priests) and the members of a Christian church, which are often called a ‘flock’; the Bible uses the sheep and shepherd metaphor to refer to the relationship between people and clergy in religious settings. Foucault (1982) said that the shepherd’s duty is to protect the

flock and keep his gaze on the flock at all times. In this way, the shepherd looks after and knows that the individuals of the flock of sheep are healthy and safe by surveilling the flock's movement. Siisiäinen (2015) argued that in Foucault's discussion, these Christian relations of power, knowledge, and truth are attached with a surveying gaze that is both totalising as well as individualising.

This metaphor of the pastorate has parallels in the educational system (Wright, 2000). For example, teachers have to be responsible for students' having knowledge and success in education, which is characteristic of the pastoral mode of power. Therefore, a teacher acts like a pastor. At the same time, the members of the flock are dependent on the shepherd, which is an element of pastoral power.

It is argued here that this is an important aspect, because pastoral power is a form of power that dictates that the one on whom pastoral power is exercised, exposes everything to the one who exercises pastoral power. Foucault (1982) states pastoral power "does not look after just the whole community but each individual in particular, during his entire life" (p. 783). This means teachers exhibit this power directly at all students as a whole unity and each individual student at the same time. This idea could be applicable to Thai government work in education that imposes the *National Education Act* 1999and the *Basic Core National Curriculum* 2008 to guide, facilitate, and control the education of the nation.

The pastor demands that the flock "reveals everything to him in order to complete the control" (Foucault, 1982, p. 783). This means that students are like a 'flock of sheep' on which pastoral power is exercised by a teacher. Thus, students follow a set of teaching instructions and ultimately become skilled in a knowledge set. Pastoral power represents a transaction; "the individual reveals the truth about him or herself", and the pastor "guarantees the individual's salvation" (Foucault,

198, pp. 783-784). The pastor exercises this power only insofar as it is necessary "to restore individuals to a state of grace" – or, in more "contemporary parlance", to "the state of being normal" (Foucault, 1982, p. 783).

The focus of this power is to ensure individual salvation in terms of health, well-being, and security (Foucault, 1984, p. 422). In the EFL context, this means pastoral power is exercised to promote the well-being of its subjects – students – by means of regulating their behaviour (Iftode, 2013).

According to Foucault (1984, p. 422), pastoral power cannot be exercised "without knowing the inside of people's minds", "without exploring their souls", "without making them reveal their innermost secrets". It implies knowledge of the conscience and an ability to direct it. For example, when teachers ask questions, students respond, trying to give solutions. This allows teachers to know their students' thinking, in order to better direct the conduct of appropriate behaviour. It could be applied as the guidance of conduct instruments used by the government to regulate the students' behaviour. For example, the government provides education to its people by administering the national curriculum to schools. The schools as public institutions then control the application of curriculum by dictating that the teacher uses certain pedagogies in relation to curriculum to teach the students. Therefore, the relation between the Ministry of Education and the schools by the teachers is like a pastor and the members of Christians in a church, called pastoral power.

Although pastoral power is exercised through institutions, Foucault (1984) suggests that pastoral power was originally aimed at assuring individual salvation in the next world by looking after each individual within a community during his entire life. Foucault defines pastoral power as ultimately aimed at promoting the well-being of its subjects by means of detailed and comprehensive regulation of their behaviour.

This means, in education, the success in learning of the individual (student) is accomplished by influencing their behaviours. For example, teachers utilise English writing pedagogies and specific techniques to ensure that their students are properly proficient in English. This is related to Foucault's description of pastoral power as individualising (Foucault, 1984). The teacher's guidance of conduct in the classroom can be seen as instruments of the formation of students who can normally be relied on to impose an appropriate rule on their own behaviour.

3.2.3 Bio-power

Bio-power is power over bodies or living people. Foucault argues that bio-power is a technology which appeared in the late 18th century for managing populations (Foucault, 1978). It incorporates certain aspects of disciplinary power in the sense that if disciplinary power is about training the actions of bodies, bio-power is about managing the births, deaths, reproduction and illnesses of a population (O'Farrell, 2007). Thus, this type of power seeks to manage populations (Taylor, 2010).

Bio-power is exercised over people in directing their lives and governing populations, and is also associated with disciplinary power (Foucault, 1998). This form of power is concerned with "the administration of life, and utilisation of the population as a productive resource" (Lemke, 2000, p. 22). For example, a state becomes involved in all aspects of life – health, labour, education; it tells you what you can and cannot, should and should not, do. If the state wants to make people healthy, it attempts to manage and regulate health organisations such as hospitals in order to ensure quality of people's lives. In education, similarly, the state wants to make people well-educated. By doing this, the state manages to produce well-

educated students through the direction of school administration, curriculum policy, and teaching and learning procedures in effective ways.

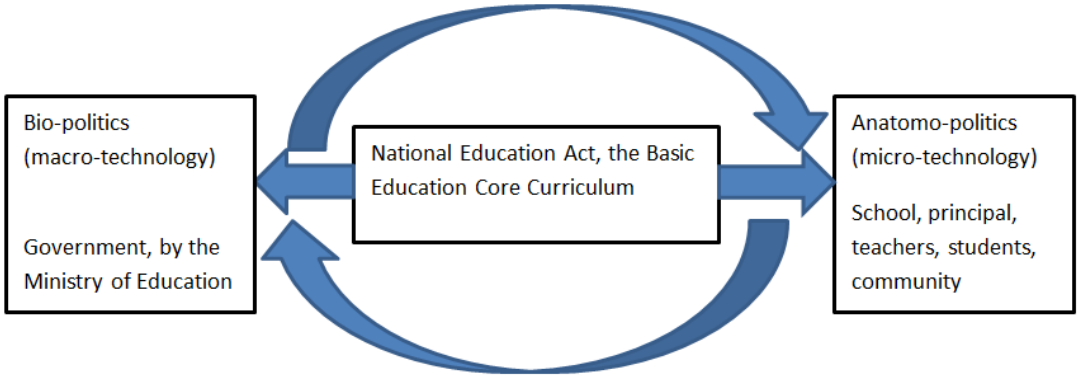


Figure 3.1. The two-poled diagram of bio-power

According to Foucault, bio-power can be distinguished by two poles or components (Figure 3.1). First, the discipline of the body refers to the human body, which is treated like a machine; productive, and economically useful (Foucault, 1978 as cited in Puri, 2014). This form of bio-power appears in the military, in education, in the workplace, and seeks to create a more disciplined, effective population. An example of this form can be seen in the educational system. The government, through the Ministry of Education in Thailand, ensures that students receive equal opportunity by using a national curriculum across the country. This curriculum is then implemented in schools by the principal and the teachers to students at all levels of the school system. It is noted that the way that the Ministry of Education works is to ensure the development of the students, which is consistent with its goal to care for its people's wealth and health.

Second, the regulation of the population focuses on the reproductive capacity of the human body. This form of bio-power appears in "demography, wealth analysis, and ideology, and seeks to control the population on a statistical level" (Puri, 2014, p. 2). Foucault (1984) points out that this power is exercised towards

"biological processes: propagation, births and mortality, the level of health, life expectancy and longevity, with all the conditions that can cause these to vary" (Foucault, 1998, p. 139). Thus, in classroom settings, in order to ensure that the students are productive and successful in learning English language, teachers have to apply pedagogies to enhance students' ability in English usage. That is, the teachers must observe, regulate and control the students' behaviours necessary to learn English. Bio-power controls the productive population through control of the body, using techniques of disciplinary power, as Foucault (1977) argues that the organisation of bio-power is established by the disciplining of the body and the regulation of the population.

3.2.4 Resistance

Foucault noted that resistance is an aspect of power when it is perceived as a set of relations. In every power relation, there may be resistance of power.

Foucault (1982) wrote:

> As far as this power is concerned, it is first necessary to distinguish that which is exerted over things and gives the ability to modify, use, consume, or destroy them – a power which stems from aptitudes directly inherent in the body or relayed by external instruments (p. 786).

It can be interpreted that there are a number of ways in which the exercise of power can be resisted. In other words, a power relation exists when one exercises power over the others in some ways. In his work *The History of Sexuality*, volume 1, Foucault elaborated on the concept of resistance that "there are no relations of power without resistance" (1980, p. 142). This introduces the notion that power which is exercised in many forms, e.g. students to students, and a teacher to students, contains forms of resistance when power is considered to be about power and interactive

relationship. O'Farrell (2010) interpreted that in Foucault's term, 'resistance' is co-extensive with power, namely as soon as there is a power relation, there is a possibility of resistance because of "a certain degree of freedom on both sides" (Foucault as cited in Rabinow, 1997, p. 292). Thus, in every action in which power relations are exercised, both freedom and resistance can be seen, since power is exercised "only over free subjects, and only insofar as they are free" (Foucault, 1982, p. 790).

According to Foucault, power relations "depend on a multiplicity of points of resistance" (1975, p. 95). The important point is that student resistance may be present in many different forms, such as not learning, pretending to study, arguing, and not participating in classroom tasks. Since power is not only productive but also repressive, the subjects can perform some actions in a resistant way. Teo and Osborne (2014) argued that the effects of power are demonstrated at times extended and resisted by those who are dominated. They further asserted that power is seen as both negative and positive. In contrast, Heller (1996) elucidated Foucault's concepts of power that power is neither inherently positive nor inherently negative; rather, power is simply the ability to create social change.

Resistance enables power to operate on an individual and amongst individuals. Foucault (1982) viewed individuals as capable of challenging and resisting the structures of domination in modern societies. St. Pierre (2000) illustrated that resistance is "inevitably in power relations" (p. 492) – if relations of power are found in every actions, and so is resistance. For example, in the classroom setting, there might be one student who pretends to write in his workbook with nothing relevant to his teacher's assignment. A form of resistance power is seen in his action because he refuses to neither learn nor write English. Similarly, Mills' work (2007) revealed that

relations of power in the classroom were tied to interactions between coercive power and the students' resistance to the dominant discourse, which happened when the students negotiated the sanctions authorised by a teacher.

In sum, Foucault's conception of resistance permitted us to better understand what power relations are about. To do this, Foucault (1982, p. 780) suggested that the "forms of resistance and attempts made to dissociate these relations" should be investigated. In this study, the concept of resistance is used to examine the way the students resist power from the teachers, positively, negatively, or effectively. Even though the focus of this study is not about teacher resistance against policy and curriculum, the concepts of resistance will assist the researcher to analyse multiple forms of power exercised accurately. Rather, students exert their power of resistance in the interactions held accountable to teachers' practices of pedagogies will be examined.

In addition to expressing resistance in the context of Thai schools, Thai teachers might comply or resist power from the curriculum policy (Dennis, 2012; Stroupe, 2014; Teng & Sinwongsuwat, 2015). This can be seen when local Thai teachers offer little resistance to English Language textbooks (Forman, 2014, Vacharaskunee, 2000). In addition, Tongpoon-Patanasorn (2011, p. 2) reveals that one of the factors which causes failure to effectively implement the new policy in Thai EFL classrooms is teachers' perception of and resistance to change. These concepts of resistance to power in the school contexts will be brought to use as a lens to analyse and discuss research data in Chapters 5 and 6 of this thesis.

In terms of the students' ability to challenge the teachers, resistance may be found in the schooling setting, especially in the EFL contexts. For example, the students might doubt the teachers' proficiency in English because of teachers'

uninfluenced speaking skill. It is interesting to explore student resistance in accordance with the multiple tensions which can be emerged between teacher and student interactions in the EFL classrooms. Students may react to the exercise of power by teachers in a resisting way (Pane, 2009), such as ignoring the teacher's instructions. For example, when a teacher asks them to work individually, one student says "No, I don't want to" and keeps repeating refusal. Another example is when students do not know the meanings of words, so they turn to their teacher for assistance. Instead of giving the students what they ask, the teacher tells them to look up in a dictionary. This can lead students to resist teacher's knowledge of vocabulary.

Foucault (1977) elaborates that power is exercised by different groups or individual with the societies and institutions, especially in schools. It is a means of controlling and resisting opposing groups (Wong, 2014). However, Foucault (1982, p. 790) wrote "When one defines the exercise of power as a mode of action upon the actions of others, …one includes an important element: freedom". It can be interpreted that in any actions, power is exercised between one who holds power and one who resists that power. Then freedom of power is created.

To Foucault, power is exercised "only over free subjects, and only insofar as they are free" (2000, p. 342). There must be freedom in a subject for power to be exerted. In other words, when resistance to power occurs – there must be freedom in order to permit forms of power established within specific relationships. For example, despite of saying "if you copy your friend's homework, you will fail", a misbehaved student still does it. In fact, a teacher cannot use coercive power to stop a student's misbehave because he refuses to obey. This is a form of resistance, which this student exercises over the teacher. With this respect, it seems that there must be

no freedom in a subject – a student – for coercive power to be exerted. However, in this case as there was student resistance, the teacher was not successful in establishing power over the student.

3.3 GOVERNMENTALITY AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Foucauldian studies of governmentality are relevant to this study because governmentality determines how education policy is formed and mandated (Ball, 2012). Thai education policies are based on economic viability and the market economy and are influenced by the forces of globalisation (Luke, 1995). For example, in the Thai educational reform of 1999, implemented in 2002 (Baker, 2012), English is placed as a compulsory subject at the primary school level (OBEC, 2008; Prapphal, 2008). As is seen worldwide, English is viewed as a crucial tool for economic, social and technological advancement (Graddol, 2003; Nunan, 2003).

Foucault originally used the term 'governmentality' to describe a particular way of administrating populations in modern European history (16th century) within the context of the rise of the idea of the State (Dean, 1999; Foucault, 1991). Furthermore, Foucault pointed out that governmentality is "an ensemble formed by institutions, procedures, analyses and reflections, the calculations and tactics that allow the exercise of this very specific albeit complex form of power" (Foucault, 2002, p. 211). Later Foucault (1984) expanded the term 'governmentality' to include the techniques and procedures which are designed to govern the conduct of both individuals and populations at every level, not just at the administrative or political level (Certomà, 2015; O' Farrell, 2007). However, this study is concerned with governmentality in terms of continuum administrative level, which involves the educational policy implemented by Thai English teachers.

As Foucault (2007) wrote:

> We pass from an art of governing whose principles were derived from the traditional virtues (wisdom, justice, liberality, respect for divine laws and human customs or from skills) prudence, reflected decisions, care in surrounding oneself with the best advisors) to an art of governing that finds the principles of its rationality and the specific domain of its applications in the state (p. 364).

Additionally, Dean (1999) asserts that governmentality is viewed as a prominent activity of the art of government of the state, which rationalises its exercise of power drawing on areas of knowledge of the human and social sciences, which become essential to it (p.20).

Foucault (1978) asks, "Why study governmentality?"(p. 161) His answer was that a theory of governmentality is necessary to tackle the relations between the state and population. The Foucauldian understanding of governmentality is applied to analyse the management of populations, and in relation to education (Lemke, 2000; Pearson, 2010). He conceptualises government as 'a regime of power' that underpins modern society (Foucault, 1984, p. 21). In his words, 'modern power' is meant to signal the rise of "governmental technologies of power", which aim to increase political and economic power. Like both disciplinary power and bio-power, governmentality exists in opposition to sovereign forms of power (Curtis, 2002; O' Farrell, 2005). In addition, Oksala (2013) noted that governmentality also refers to the "tendency that leads to the development of a series of specific governmental apparatuses and forms of knowledge" (p. 32). Oksala (2013) and Lemke (2007) note that Foucault's analyses of governmentality and bio-power are discussed together to illustrate the changing nature of state and its relation to society, and neo-liberalism.

'Government' is defined as any more or less calculated activity, undertaken by a multiplicity of authorities and agencies, employing a variety of techniques and

forms of knowledge, that seek to shape conduct by working through our desires, aspirations, interests and beliefs, for definite but shifting ends and with a diverse set of relatively unpredictable consequences, effects and outcomes (Dean, 1999, p. 18). The idea of government can be understood as how the government dictates the structure and management of society, and how it directs individual conduct.

Foucault (1984) emphasises that the art of governmentality sought to introduce 'economy,' conceived as right management. This means policy makers, educators, and teachers are all engaged to produce teaching and learning policy. According to Foucault (1991), this concern marked the beginning of the conceptual shift towards our contemporary use of the word 'economy' to designate an autonomous region of social relations (Lemke, 2000). Thus, the end of government "is to be sought in the perfection, the maximization, or the intensification of the processes it directs…" or, again, "… he who governs, must only govern to the extent that he thinks and acts as if he were in the service of those who are governed" (Foucault, 1994, pp. 146-147).

Dean (1999, p. 20) points out that 'government' concerns the capacities and abilities of individual subjects as members of a population, which are resources to be 'used', 'fostered' and 'optimised'. Curtis (2002) asserts that government is "a positive form of power". Foucault (2002, p. 219) introduces the three modes of power, that is, "the individual's government of itself", "through to the father's government of the household", and "to the prince's government of the state as fundamental to modern authority" – "in reality one has a triangle, sovereignty-discipline government, which has as its primary target the population and as its essential mechanism the apparatuses of security" (Foucault, 1991, p. 102).

Foucault (1995) discusses the idea that governmentality, bio-power and related issues, such as disciplinary power work in combination, which are tied together in

order to analyse the work of power. Governmentality is about how we think about governing. Thinking is not an individual activity, but is in fact, influenced by the bodies of knowledge and belief systems of our communities and societies (Foucault, 1991). All aspects of government are exercised with "an end point in mind", for example, "the creation of active citizens" (Dean, 1999, p. 18). In the Thai context, the government passes a *National Education Act* (1999), forcing all education levels to manage and organise English language as a compulsory subject through all levels of education (Nomnian, 2013). It is obvious that governmentality enforces certain rules and procedures within the Thai context (Wannachotphawate, 2015). In this study, how teachers implement English writing pedagogies relates to certain types of power, which are exercised in the school and classroom. This is relevant to the discussion of how discourses in different communities vary, and how teachers need to be reflective of how the dominant discourses can marginalise certain groups (Mills, 2006).

Governmentality uses the 'apparatus' of security to circumscribe the population (Lemke, 2002; Tremain, 2005), for instance, the police force, standing armies, education, health, and social welfare systems, as well as ways with which to manage the economy. These institutions and practices operate to defend and maintain the population. This process is called "governmentalisation of the state" (Foucault, 2002, p. 221). The state controls power relations, governmentalising them by "elaborating", "rationalising" and "centralising" them either as state institutions or under the control of state institutions (Foucault, 2002, pp. 221-222). In the Thai education context, governmentalisation operates through procedures, such as a national curriculum and national education reform, that rationalise the teaching of English language, making it mandatory (Nomnian, 2013).

In response to the Thai context, the country is now preparing for regional integration of all aspects of the quality of life, including comprehensive and balanced human development and the global challenges of socio-economic demands by focusing on their national development plan to build the capacity of their people (NEA, 1999; NEP, 2002-2016). It is believed that having quality human resources is the basis for economic growth. In relation to this idea, English language plays a major role in Thailand's development plan because the English language has become a regional and global language. Therefore, the Basic Education Core Curriculum (OBEC, 2008) dictates four main strands and standards regarding teaching and learning English at a primary school level (see Chapter 5). Thailand needs to be ready for the trade and employment amongst the ten nations of ASEAN. As Stroupe and Kimura (2015, p. 1) suggest, "a major challenge that countries in the association (ASEAN) are striving to meet is the development of capacity in order to implement this further integration, particularly as related to the increased emphasis on English use in governmental, educational and business activities".

Given that English has become a means of communication not only in the ASEAN context, but also worldwide regarding trade, education, and tourism, and so on (Baker, 2008; Nunan, 2003). The Thai government, through the work of education policy makers, educators, and relevant educational stakeholders, develops and enacts language planning policies and English language pedagogical implications to prepare Thai readiness for the ASEAN community (Baker, 2016; Baker, 2008; Boriboon, 2011; Foley, 2005; Wiriyachitra, 2004)

The Ministry of Education is leading the transformation of the education system with a strategy based upon enhancing moral and ethical values, together with a core program for improving quality in education (SEMEO, 2012). One of the key

programs is to transform language learning. It is stated that transforming and developing the teaching and learning of languages, using authentic materials and learning situations, including the English Program, aim at providing full or partial Thai national curriculum subjects in English (Ministry of Education, 2008, p. 10). In the Thai context, teachers are expected to comprehend and interpret policy in the context of their own classrooms and schools. The national curriculum provides teaching pedagogies for teachers to implement appropriately to their school contexts.

Based on governmentality, these processes are used to regulate practice and help teachers become more accountable to the government. Dean (1999) suggested that governmentality aims to shape "the conduct of people" (p. 19) in the way that the connection between knowledge and power along with school's position as a regulator of that power makes this study particularly compelling and important, since Foucault (1982) points out that the dominant theme related to power is one of authority or repression. Additionally, "the successful government" of others depends on the capacity of those in power to self-govern, and for the governed to regulate their own behaviour (Pearson, 2010, p. 49).

In Foucault's words (1991, p. 103), governmentality is "at once internal and external to the state, since it is the tactics of government which make possible the continual definition and redefinition of what is within the competence of the state and what is not, the public versus the private, and so on; thus the state can only be understood in its survival and its limits on the basis of the general tactics of governmentality". In other words, the state itself is a tactic of government (Lemke, 2000).

In sum, the concept of governmentality reminds us that political economy relies on the political anatomy of the body (Lemke, 2001, pp. 201-202). In this study,

the Basic English Curriculum 2008 and the Basic Education Core Curriculum 2008 are employed to interpret the relations between exercise of power and teacher implementation of pedagogies. Foucault (1991) states “we can interpret a neo-liberal governmentality” in which not only the individual body, but also collective bodies and institutions, such as school, college, and university, corporations and states have to be "lean", "fit", "flexible" and "autonomous" (Lemke, 2000, p. 13).

Drawing on a Foucauldian analysis of power to analyse the teaching of English writing in Thai primary schooling is a crucial point of this research. Relations between power and pedagogies implemented by the teachers under the curriculum, which is dictated by the Thai government, are to be investigated and analysed. Hence, the framework of this research will be underpinned by the analysis of power relations exercised through pedagogy, often borrowed from L2 contexts, and transposed on the Thai curriculum. In terms of power and pedagogy, this research analyses how social power operates in a Thai primary classroom. This is useful for understanding power relations that operate in Thai contexts of English teaching pedagogies, rather than viewing pedagogies as ideologically benign.

3.4 CARSPECKEN’S TYPOLOGY OF INTERACTIVE POWER RELATIONS

Utilising Carspecken’s (1996) typology of interactively established power enables a researcher to interpret the data through a comparative analysis of the two teacher participants. Carspecken (1996) states:

> Interactive power relations occur when actors are differentiated in terms of who has most say in determining the course of an interaction and whose definition of the interactive setting holds sway. (p. 129)

As the quote illustrates, power relationships should be examined as interactive to explore who has what kind of power, how power is exercised, and why. Carspecken (1996) categorised power relations into four types.

Normative power

This form of power is exercised when a subordinate consents to the higher social position of a superordinate because of cultural norms. In the school setting, teachers use normative power to maintain their authoritative status, such as a loud voice, authoritative personality, or even gestures. Students obey and follow the instructions of English lessons. Teachers also claim their normative power when they walk around the classroom while students are working to distribute handouts, to check students' work, and to provide students an opportunity to ask questions.

Conducting a critical ethnography research, Pane (2009) reported that students eventually consented to their classroom norms because they believed that a teacher knew the content, had patience, and supported them to learn. Mills (2011) suggests that the teacher's status is viewed as the normative power of the teacher, which makes students obey the teacher because the society of the schooling context says so. In other words, students are expected to pay respective manner to the teachers because of the hierarchy status. Nevertheless, she further mentions that the teacher's normative power becomes ineffective if students choose to resist.

Coercive power

Carspecken (1996) uses the term 'coercive power' to define the ability of the power holder to remove something from a person or to punish them for not conforming to a request. This kind of power is the opposite of reward power. For example, a threatened action by a teacher is a form of coercive power. A teacher might say, "If you don't listen to me, you lose some points" and then writes a

particular student's name on the blackboard. Such action is to prevent interruption while a teacher is speaking. This practice induces in students a fear of possible punishment or embarrassment; hence they do not interrupt the teaching.

Coercive power is exercised to assist teachers to control their classes by rule, including sanctions and acts of punishment. Teachers appear to use coercive power not only to control misbehaviour of the students, but also to increase their motivation to learn English (Carspecken, 1996). Through fear of punishment, students avoid engaging in undesired behaviours, such as quarrelling, ignoring the lessons, and using impolite manners.

Interactively established contracts

Carspecken explains this form of power as a subordinate act for the return of favours or rewards from a superordinate. In a school setting, interactively established contracts are observed in the interactions between students and the teacher (Carspecken, 1996). For example, students seem to establish resistance when they want to decide to do the task individuals or a group (Pane, 2009; Mills, 2010), a teacher decides to negotiate to determine the rules instead of using normative power to hold a status of a teacher. The negotiation between students and a teacher can be assumed an interactively established contract, which both parties exert this power over others.

Furthermore, this power works together with other forms of power for better consequences in the classrooms. For example, students might be allowed to use interactively established contracts to negotiate condition of performing writing tasks. They ask the teacher whether they can organise the rules by their own or not. The teacher might consider this circumstance an active learning atmosphere because students are enthusiastic to share their ideas among others. However, the teacher still

keeps normative power to remind them about the school norms, such as keep silent and do not interrupt other classrooms while studying. Finally, the students give consent to the teacher.

Charm

Teachers use reward power to win the heart of the students so that the students align their behaviours to school expectations (Carspecken, 1996). In Carspecken's typology of interactive power relations (Carspecken, 1996, pp. 129-131), charm is considered a type of reward. The word 'charm' is used to describe how a subordinate acts out of loyalty to the superordinate because of the latter's personality. He points out in his example that the teacher obtains students' obedience through charm, such as when the teacher says, 'They were so original!' and 'the teacher talks to her students in a friendly and warm manner'.

Pane (2009) and Pane et al. (2014) provide an example of how students consent to their teacher's teaching instruction. For example, students appear to obey a kind and friendly teacher. They listen to the teacher attentively while studying and to be cooperative in classroom activities. This is because the students know that this teacher would not scold or blame them if they give wrong answers. The teacher uses this form of power – personal charm – to win the obedience and loyalty of the students. On the other hand, students feel encouraged to learn English when they receive a compliment from their teacher, such as 'Very well, Anna.' and 'Good job! Lucy'. Teachers' compliments to students themselves or to students' work are concerned with the exercising of charm.

Additionally, teachers use charm together with interactive established contracts to draw on students' cooperation in classroom activities. For example, a teacher who has a friendly personality is not successful when attempting to students' practice

writing performances on given topics, since students find that those topics are not interesting to write about. The teacher appears to use interactively established contract to encourage students to propose their interested topics for more choices to choose. Ultimately, students accept these changes and consent to the teacher instruction.

3.5 LINKS BETWEEN FOUCAULDIAN AND CARSPECKEN'S CONCEPTS OF POWER

The theoretical links between Foucault and Carspecken's concepts of power allow for a deeper analysis of data in this study. Carspecken (1996) states in his book of critical qualitative research that Stages four and five involve "the complex relationships existing between the social site of focal interest and various other social sites" (p. 172). To explain these relationships, he suggests Michel Foucault's original writings of postmodernism which provide "important insights" (Carspecken, 1996, p. 173) because Foucault focused on how power is exercised in actions rather than what forms of power are exercised. In contrast, Carspecken is concerned with who holds what kinds of power over others in specific interactions in social settings.

Carspecken's methodology was designed to help researchers understand power relations, which in this study, were observed in the classroom setting. To examine specific teacher-student social interactions within classrooms that influence teachers' decisions to use or not use exclusionary discipline, types of power are entered in these relationships, such as charm, normative power, coercive power, and interactively established contracts. In relation to classroom interactions, these forms of power relations are found in varying degrees for different purposes (Carspecken, 1996).

Similar to Foucault's concepts which enable the researcher to explore the relations of power in the schooling context, since schools are considered as a space enables power to be exercised and a space to reproduce 'docile body'. In short, Foucault (1977) was concerned to explain the discipline as a means of training the bodies. Accordingly, even though there are the differences in viewing power in the relationships, it seems to be understandable that there are similarities in some aspects, such as norms, rewards and coercive punishment. These similarities and differences will be brought to the discussion of power relations observed in this study in order to gain advantage and benefit from data analysis.

3.6 SUMMARY

Based on the purposes of this research, this chapter provides a theoretical framework for analysing power relations in English language teaching for understanding EFL writing pedagogies in the Thai context. The approaches to EFL writing instruction presented in the previous chapter also contribute to shaping an understanding of the pedagogical perspectives relevant to Thai EFL classrooms. This study critically examines the writing pedagogies that are enacted in the context of the national curriculum by the Thai government that was imported from Western countries to teach EFL students in Thai primary schools, with a view to understanding the extent to which these patterns and practices do or do not serve the unique needs of the Thai people.

Furthermore, this study examines the power relations tied to language knowledge and its influential aspects. By employing Foucault's notions of power and governmentality, the theoretical framework draws on views of power from critical linguistics and sociocultural language research. A series of Foucault's work on power relations and techniques of power, including principals of surveillance,

disciplinary power, pastoral power, and bio-power, are drawn upon as the basis for the analysis reported in Chapter 5, which examines actions regarding the exercises of power within the Thai primary school space. The theoretical framework is consistent with the research question, with the use of qualitative forms of data collection and analysis in this study, and applications of sociocultural and critical approaches within the field of language studies. As additional lens, Carspecken's typology of interactive power will be brought for analysing power relations based on four themes: normative power, coercive power, interactively established contracts, and charm in both subtle and obvious ways as needed in the data analysis.

Chapter 4 outlines the methodology of this study, which draws primarily on Carspecken's (1996) critical ethnographic approach. The justification of methodologies and methods used in this inquiry is also provided in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Methodology of the Study

4.0 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters illustrated that this study investigates how teachers implement EFL writing pedagogies in the Thai context. The study also explores the significant aspects of power relations between ESL pedagogies and the influence of power on the teaching of EFL writing in a Thai primary school.

Chapter 3 examined the theoretical framework drawing on Foucault and this chapter explains the methodology used in this research, the data collection procedures, the data analysis, and schedules of the research. It also presents a description of the settings in which the research took place and of the teacher and student participants who participated in the study. As a critical ethnography, this study also examines the classroom interactions that took place during English lessons observed in three primary classrooms: Lina taught Grade 4 and Sopin taught Grades 5 and 6. It then analyses the data systematically based on the principle of critical ethnographic research. This was done to gain a holistic picture of the participants by observing and interviewing them (Carspecken, 1996). As a critical ethnographic research, this study combined semi-structured interviewing, and observations of teachers as social actors in real life situations was applied. The chapter includes validity requirements for ethnography, ethical issues, and a section that addresses the self-reflexivity of the researcher. Limitations of the research methodology are also provided.

4.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

As noted in Chapter 1, this study addresses the following research question:

"How is power implicated in EFL writing pedagogies in Thai primary classrooms?"

In order to show how this question was approached in this study, a review of the methodology is presented in the following sections.

Critical ethnography has its roots in the Chicago school (Creswell, 2005, p. 132), shifting the research focus from 'individual or group pathology' to an analysis of cultural dominance and minorities (Thomas, 1993, p.11). As Carspecken (1996) stated, "Criticalists are concerned about social inequalities, and direct their work toward positive social change" (p. 3). Criticalists are also interested in "social theory and some of the basic issues, including power, culture, and human agency" (p. 3). Critical ethnography provides the study of a cultural group or particular phenomenon, such as the Thai school setting in this research. This aim is suitable for educational research, and by suggesting "what can be done about it" (Cook, 2005, p. 132), critical ethnographic research provides a useful method for meaningful research in educational settings.

Critical ethnography can be used in education to examine not only the pedagogical practices of English language teacher participants, but also the social relations that contribute to these practices, their students, school and, ultimately, in this study, the national English curriculum. Moreover, critical ethnography enables research participants to participate in the identification of issues that they wish to pursue. By employing the principles of critical ethnography and applying them to English language teaching, a researcher can further explore the impact of power relations on pedagogies and can address its influences. This is consistent with Street's (2001) ideological view of literacy, which includes an important acknowledgement of power and ideology in understanding language use. Street

(2000) argues that it is necessary for teachers and policy makers to be aware of the theoretical models of literacy, which influence educational policy and practice. As Street (2000, pp.7-8) states:

> Ideological models of literacy disguise the cultural and ideological assumptions that underpin it and that can then be presented as though they are neutral and universal ... The alternative, ideological model of literacy ... offers a more culturally sensitive view of literacy practices as they vary from one context to another. This model starts from different premises than the autonomous model – it posits instead that literacy is a social practice, not simply a technical and neutral skill ... It is about knowledge: the ways in which people address reading and writing are themselves rooted in conceptions of knowledge, identity, being. Literacy, in this sense, is always contested.

The use of ethnography's use in the field of teaching and learning English is described by Heath (1983) and Athanases and Heath (1995), who explain that the ethnographies of language learning and use outside of classrooms also provide insights into cultural patterns that influence how we view school learning. To illustrate the use of ethnographic research methods in the study of language, Heath (1983) described her research focus as follows: to explore answers to the questions about "…why students and teachers often could not understand each other, why questions were sometimes not answered, and why habitual ways of talking and listening did not always seem to work" (p. 2). These questions were asked in the context of communication among three different cultural groups in the Piedmont region of the Carolinas (USA).

Heath's landmark study demonstrated how language practices vary among communities, and are socially and culturally situated. This was an important contribution to language studies at the time, when psychometric or "autonomous"

models of language asserted that language and literacy were essentially an individual capacity that involved a universal set of basic skills (Street, 2001). Heath (1983), Street (2001), Carspecken, (1996) and others used ethnographic methods to research language and literacy practices in different communities, demonstrating how literacy should be studied through observations of how communities in different cultural groups use and apply literacy in socioculturally important ways (Heath, 1983). The aim of this research is to examine the English teaching and learning pedagogies as social and cultural practices in a classroom setting. The interactions between teachers and students were observed ethnographically, consistent with the use of ethnography in sociocultural literacy research (Street, 2001).

Critical ethnography allows researchers to investigate, in-depth, a phenomenon or an event while in the field (i.e. in natural settings). Spradley (1979) describes ethnography "as a qualitative research technique, which is used to elicit participants' points of view and to understand their world" (pp.8-9). In ethnographic studies, researchers examine small events in depth, and then document complex characteristics that make a phenomenon unique (Yin, 2003 as cited in Dunbar, 2009). An ethnographic approach allows a researcher to be at the site over an extended period to observe what is happening, to hear what people actually say about what they are doing and why. This research was conducted in the classroom where students and teachers were objects of study. As described by Nunan (1992), ethnography is a method to investigate people in a natural context – a real situation – in this case, teachers and students in a classroom.

Burns (2000) points out that the purpose for using ethnography is to uncover and describe group social relations, such as the understandings which participants

share about their situation. It is also used to describe the legitimisations by which participants justify the normality and unquestioned character of their situation.

Carspecken (1996) provides a methodological theory of critical ethnography, together with empirical techniques and data coding methods. Carspecken's five stages (1996) include observation and analysis of observational data; 'monological data' and dialogical data generation; analysis to discover relationships between individuals, groups, and systems; and examination of findings in relation to existing theories of society (pp. 40-43).

In summary, specific to this research, a critical ethnography approach based on Carspecken (1991) offers a means to closely investigate the personal experiences of teacher participants in the school context. Critical ethnography allows the researcher to collect data with the teacher participant in a real setting. The use of ethnographic research methods is suited to answering the research question which concerns description of the local. This study was carried out with Thai teachers who teach English to the students who live and work in a local cultural context, including ethnic minority groups (Hmong and Karen) in a primary school in the Thai EFL context. Creswell (2009) stated that an advantage for critical ethnographers is that research is flexible, allowing the lived realities of participants to evolve in their natural context (Dunbar, 2009). Critical ethnographic research enables the researcher to examine the system relations described by Carspecken (1991), such as to identify power relations between the local data and global international patterns in teaching EFL writing. The research design and time period is outlined briefly in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Table of research design and time period

Five-Stage Model	**Stage 1 Monological data collection**	**Stage 2 Preliminary analysis**	**Stage 3 Dialogical data collection& analysis**	**Stage 4 Describing system relations**	**Stage 5 Explaining system relations**
Data collection Research steps	Observation	Initial data analysis	Compare data collection	Conducting system analysis to broader context	Link findings to existing theories
Participants	Two teachers	Two teachers / researcher	Two teachers	Theorising about the teachers and their work and social context	Researcher
Methods	Field note taking, audio recording, video recording	Raw data	Semi-structured interviews	System analysis	System analysis
Purposes	To record classroom activities, learning atmosphere, voices	To distinguish and categorize the data recorded from stage 1	To gain the dialogical data	To discover system relations between teachers, curriculum, and pedagogies	To compare the data to existing theories
Duration	3 teaching periods/week A total of 7 weeks	7 weeks	7 weeks	3 months	3 months
Site	Thai school	Thai school	Thai school	QUT	QUT
Identifying system relations	Identifying the influence of internationally circulated approaches to ESL writing and those used to teach EFL writing in Thailand.				
Duration	Unspecified				

Carspecken (1996, pp. 41-43) developed a five-stage model for conducting critical qualitative research. The first three stages use "critical analytic models to reconstruct cultural structures and themes", while the last two stages aim to "discover how routine social actions form and reproduce system relations that coordinate activities across various reaches of space and time" (Georgiou & Carspecken, 2002,

p. 690). Accordingly, in this study the first three stages describe and analyse relevant speech and acts of the participants in a Thai classroom setting in relation to the research question. The first three stages of Carspecken's model were introduced to produce the data set in a public primary school in Thailand. The data collection was carried out for seven weeks in Thai classrooms. The last two stages involve interpretation of the findings in relation to the literature and to particular theories. Carspecken's five-stage approach (1996) used in this research is described as follows.

Stage One: Monological data collection

The first stage involved compiling what Carspecken (1996, pp. 42-45) calls "the primary record" or account of observed events through the collection of "monological data". The monological data were collected from observational field notes, which essentially consist of words, phrases, and dialogues between the teachers and the students. It is the beginning of the data collection steps that the researcher observed in Sopin's and Lina's English classes. Stage One took seven weeks, or 17 hours and 30 minutes of observation. Carspecken (1996) recommended that the researcher type 'thick' descriptions into the computer to help "sharpen one's awareness of events that may occur routinely" (p.49). This is achieved by collecting data in the first stage through a monological perspective, which involves focusing on watching and listening, and observing social practices in an unobtrusive and essentially passive way. Therefore, in this stage, the researcher conducts the fieldwork without obtaining the participants' viewpoints on the data. This was done by conducting lesson observation in the classroom, and making some field journal notes describing critical pedagogies, interactions, and events in the classroom. These included teaching and learning activities, and interactions that provided evidence of

the working of power among the participants (e.g. social power of teacher over the students, power of students over the teacher, and the authority of curriculum). The researcher used video recording, digital audio recording, and note-taking while observing classroom activities. Student work samples were also collected to build up a clearer description of the lesson. A field note sample of a classroom observation is shown in 4.4.2 page 144.

Stage Two: Preliminary analysis

The second stage was the preliminary reconstructive analysis. In this stage, the researcher began to analyse the observational data collected in stage one. The data described the cultural context, the sites selected, and the observed social interactions and routines. Coding began in this stage. Descriptive data analysis techniques were applied, such as hierarchical coding of repeated key themes, re-organising codes into sub-themes and overarching themes, and applying discourse analysis of written data (Carspecken, 1996). Data analysis involves not only coding and creating meaningful categories of codes, but also comparing and making links between data (Cohen et al, 2007; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Kohlbacher, 2006).

According to Carspecken (1996), coding or the description of themes, can be derived from theoretical frameworks. Examples of power and sub-categories of power themes in this study are directing, dictating, and drilling, whereas writing pedagogy themes are spelling, drafting and pre-writing. As noted by Carspecken (1996), coding can be 'low-level' or 'high-level'. Low-level codes are sometimes primarily objective in nature, which refers to activities that are open to multiple access (p. 147). Carspecken (1996, p. 148) argued that 'high-level codes' are dependent on greater amounts of abstraction and are generally based on explicit meaning reconstructions and horizon analysis. High-level coding is needed to

generalise findings that emerge from various forms of qualitative data analysis. Thus, in this study the codes and sub-codes were grouped into two overarching themes – power and pedagogy – for each participant teacher in the study. The emerging subcategories and themes were derived from data, in conjunction with the literature review in Chapter 2 and the theoretical framework in Chapter 3.

This stage was done at the time of each classroom observation in order to make sure that the researcher carefully followed up data collection. The data was transcribed the same day or week which it was recorded, in order not to lose its meanings or significance over time. This process required several hours of transcribing for the total period of classroom observations. The transcribed data were shared with the teacher participants. The teacher participants made comments to give their perspective of the events recorded.

Stage Three: Dialogical data collection and analysis

The third stage involves an engagement with dialogical data; that is, where a researcher interacted and elicited the position or viewpoint of the participants, rather than objectifying the participants, according to Carspecken (1996, pp. 154-155). The researcher interviewed the two selected teacher participants for the purpose of comparison. Also, this number of participants was manageable in terms of time management for the researcher conducting an individual project overseas. The interview schedule is provided in the data collection subsection 4.4 of this chapter. Several methods of compiling data were employed: digital audio recording, fieldnote taking, and video recording. Semi-structured interviews were carried out after the teaching of week 7 in the 2014 school year. This took approximately 30 minutes per teacher (see Table 4.4.). The interviews in this research were conducted in Thai and

then transcribed and translated into English by the researcher and a qualified translator (see section 4.6).

Stage Three was time-consuming, since comparing several data sets about the same phenomenon was done in order to overcome the weakness or biases of a single method. Carspecken (1996) recommends comparing multiple sources of data using multiple recording devices and multiple observers. He states: "I usually take notes with a tape recorder running and, when possible, have another observer take notes…" (p.88). However, in this study, the researcher was the only classroom observer using multiple recording devices in order to compare data from multiple sources for accuracy and reliability. Therefore, the data sources regarding classroom interactions such as video records, observation field notes, and students' work samples were compared.

Stage Four: Describing system relations

The fourth stage allows the researcher to describe system relations in the broader context. The researcher used theoretical concepts to explain systematically the macro-level findings (Carspecken, 1996) – findings about social life that are applicable across institutional systems. The data collected and analysed during stages 1-3 were made broader and more meaningful by linking the ESL and EFL writing approaches to describe the system relation of the discoveries and the existing theories on language learning and the spread of English.

During this stage, the researcher critically analysed different sources of data, such as curriculum documents, in order to identify which English writing pedagogies are reproductions. Interview transcripts were coded based on themes and sub-themes and then analysed by theorising about the pedagogical implementation. This was to

discover system relations between teachers, curriculum, and pedagogies by linking what happened in the research site to international developments in EFL.

Stage Five: Explaining system relations

The fifth stage involved the researcher explaining the findings by looking at the links between the observational data, and the international and historical power relations influencing English Language Learning in Thailand. To complete these critical analyses, comparisons were made between the data sets – observations of teaching writing and teachers' interviews. The Thai national curriculum was also considered when interpreting the teacher interviews about curriculum mandates. This stage was the most time consuming, critical, and difficult step of this research. The researcher spent several months investigating power relations and pedagogies and then making the connections between teachers' practice and the *2008 Basic Education Core curriculum*, which was influenced by numerous Western theories in EFL writing pedagogy (Dueraman, 2012; Todd, 2005; Todd & Keyuravong, 2004). Chapter 6 will elaborate the details of system relations to the international context of language and power. This stage allows the researcher to compare the research findings to the broader international context of English literacy in the globalised world.

4.2 SETTING

This research was conducted in Thailand in Semester 1 of the academic year 2014. To fulfil the purpose of the research and to answer the research question, the teacher and student participants from primary classrooms Grade 4-6 were chosen to participate. The classroom data, gathered from student-teacher interactions during English lesson classes, were collected from a public primary school in Chiang Mai.

This school is relatively small with one classroom per grade level (e.g. 27 students in Grade 4).

The site of this study was a public school, located in Chiang Mai Province in the north of Thailand. Students came from different cultural, socio-economic, and educational backgrounds including Hmong, Karen, and Myanmar. This school provides basic education from Grade 1 to Grade 9 levels. There were approximately 30 students in most classrooms, divided into groups of five students. The students were allowed to form their own groups. The students sat in their separate groups, but were close to other groups. Each classroom was equipped with a blackboard, electric fans, and ceiling lights and was spacious enough to accommodate the whole class.

In the Thai educational system, students in primary school levels are required to attend at least two periods and up to four periods of English lessons a week. This school was initially selected because of my interest in doing critical ethnographic research with diverse and multicultural classrooms, as mentioned in Chapter 1. The teacher participants were willing to participate in the research. The researcher determined the selection of the three primary classrooms Grade 4-6 according to the teachers' experiences with teaching English language and their willingness to participate.

According to Dyson (1993), entering the field involves a researcher forming the types of relationships that allow for the learning that needs to take place during the course of a study. It involves learning the language, the social customs, and the patterns of behaviour that exist in a setting that is new in many respects to the researcher. For the researcher, this is often an uncomfortable aspect of the ethnographic research process. Therefore, the researcher had an informal talk with the teacher participants to understand the relevant aspects of the students'

background, such as ethnicity and languages, before the fieldwork began. The researcher introduced herself as a researcher and an observer. Most importantly, the researcher spent extra time being and talking with some students in order to collect their written work samples.

This 10-12 year old age group is an interesting cohort in Thai EFL classrooms because students are in the upper primary level and have typically developed some English writing skills. Chen (2014) suggests that the relationship between age and learning strategy use in an EFL setting is critical because teachers need to be aware of the differences in their students and adjust their teaching practices to meet the developmental needs of students. Primary students aged 10-12 are developing the use of memory strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, and affective strategies (Chen, 2014). Based on Chen's study, students at this age seem to use compensation strategies to help them overcome limitations in existing knowledge, such as guessing the meaning of unknown words while reading or listening, and using gestures in speaking and synonyms in writing (Chen, 2014, p. 148). The students had different English writing skills, which is normal in Thai primary classrooms. Further, according to the English course syllabus for Grades 4-6, there are benchmarks focusing on practising writing skills in various situations, so writing of students in these grades is more interesting and varied. Significantly, this research investigates the writing pedagogies that teachers implement in their primary classroom.

Table 4.2

Demographic information about teacher participants

Teacher's name	Grade Taught	no. of students by gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Lina	4	13	14	27
Sopin	5	14	16	30
Sopin	6	14	15	29

Table 4.2 shows the number of students in each class. From the table, it is appeared that the number of students of each gender is equal, with approximately 30 students of each gender in total. The interviews were conducted in a private teacher's room with Lina on 24th August 2014 and with Sopin on 25th August 2014.

4.3 RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

With regard to ethical issues, the two teacher participants were given the pseudonyms Sopin and Lina to protect the anonymity of the research participants. The former taught the Grade 5 and 6 class composed of students aged 11 and 12 years, while the latter taught Grade 4 students, aged 10 years. (see also Appendix E)

4.3.1 Participant selection criteria

The two teachers selected to participate in this research were Thai. Each graduated with a Bachelor's degree majoring in English, and has a teaching certificate issued by the Teachers' Council of Thailand, as these are the current registration requirements in most Thai school contexts (Deerajviset, 2013; Kaewmala, 2012).

The first criterion for selection of the two teachers was their willingness to participate in the study. This is an ethical requirement for all research, as the participants should not feel coerced to be involved in the research and to be able to provide informed, voluntary consent to participate. Further, this is particularly the

case when making classroom observations of teaching and learning procedure and in semi-structured interviews (Purcell-Gates, 2011).

Secondly, the two English language teacher participants had to be qualified teachers with experience teaching English language for at least three years. In particular, they had to be fully trained in teaching ESL or EFL students in order to participate. Certificates of ESL or EFL teaching from prestigious organisations which provide training courses, such as TESOL Thailand, British Council Northern Region, Chiang Mai, assured the qualifications in teaching English of the two selected teacher participants (Cheunchaichon, 2015; Graham, 2002).

Lastly, the teacher participants needed to possess knowledge about implementing English writing approaches to enhance students' writing skills. These include process-based, product-based, and genre-based approaches that have become popular in the Thai English Curriculum (Chuenchaichon, 2015; Duerman, 2015; Nomnian, 2012). This increased the likelihood best current practices were observed in the research sites. The intent was to increase the utility of the findings within a Thai teaching setting.

4.3.2 Teacher participant's description: Sopin

As stated in Chapter 1, Sopin received her Bachelor's degree in Education, majoring in English from a Thai university. She had taught English at this school for 6 years. She was responsible for instructing Grade 5 and 6 students. Previously, she taught English at another school for many years. During her teaching career, she received many certificates in teacher training run by organisations such as PEERS (Primary Education English Resources Centre), the British Council, and the Office of the Basic Education Commission. The teacher training courses that she attended

pertained to teaching English as a foreign language, curriculum, writing English lessons, and teaching instruction.

In relation to her learning writing background, Sopin could not recall accurately how she was taught to write in English in Thai schools. Similarly to other Thai students, she seldom wrote in English classes at primary school. Additionally, at the primary level, she was taught simple vocabulary and simple sentences. The method of teaching was to make grammatical sentences with the vocabulary. Sopin remembered that she wrote more often when she was at the secondary level. The contents of writing composition were more intensive, but the skills were similar to those taught in the primary years, but were more complex.

When Sopin studied for her Bachelor's degree, she liked writing narrative short stories. However, since she did not learn how to write correctly and rarely wrote in English at school levels, she had problems with writing. Although she wrote more frequently and with her English lecturer's help, she did not write well. At that time, learning to write in English was not clear in terms of the methods, but focused on more product writing, such as using transitional words and complex sentences. She remembered that her writing experience at university comprised writing essays, writing biographies, and being assigned topics or themes for writing. She mentioned that there should have been more writing courses for English major students.

Sopin provided details about her experiences in teaching writing in English to primary students. Her experiences from primary, secondary and university were applied, starting from focusing on language structures and grammar. Then vocabulary and forms of sentences were taught. The students also practised writing and they wrote from examples. Sopin experienced difficulties in how to assist her students learn and develop their writing performance. With her experiences from

teacher professional training, she decided to try strategic activities with her students. Sopin created a friendly and active learning environment for her students. In my observations, Sopin's classes contained several activities and interactions between the teacher and the students, and among the students themselves. For instance, Sopin offered routine activities based on the students' vocabulary knowledge, but allowed the routines to become more flexible throughout the semester. This made the students more familiar with writing instructions.

Additionally, the researcher learned from the conversation with Sopin that she felt the strong point of her teaching writing was the learners' skills in vocabulary. Most students use vocabulary and write sentences correctly as a result of her teaching. The students also understood the structure of the sentences to be written. However, she knew the weak point was they did not know the meanings of some vocabulary clearly, so they lacked confidence to apply the vocabulary to make sentences.

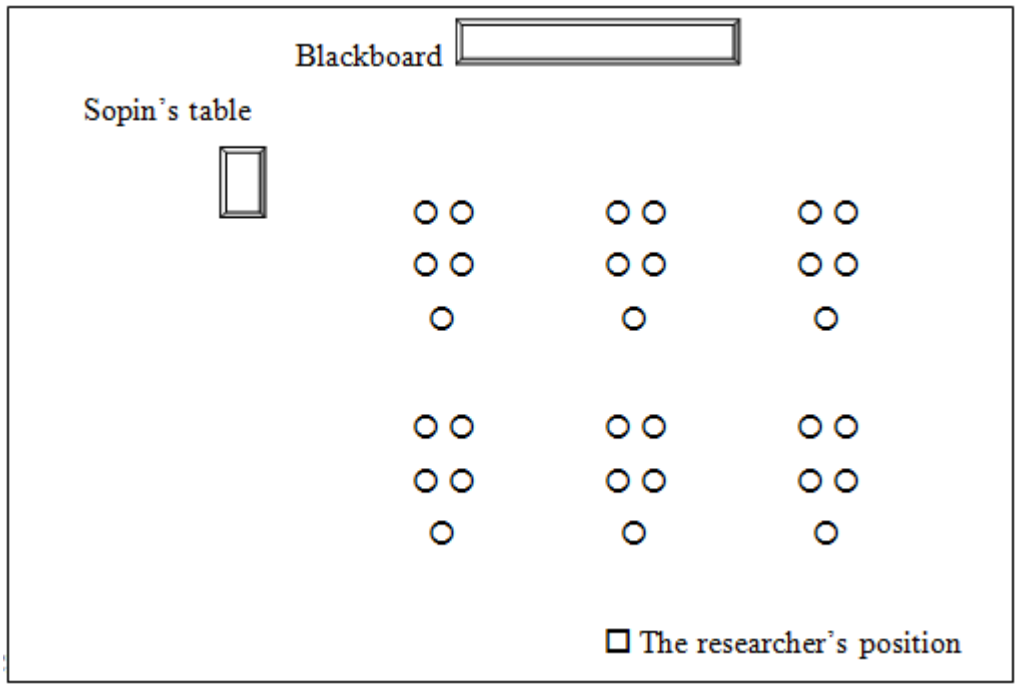


Figure 4.1. Sopin's classroom arrangement.

This figure illustrates how the classroom was arranged. Sopin's table was at the front of the classroom. She liked to stand in front of the class while talking to the students. She occasionally circulated amongst the groups of the students to assist them, while the students were writing, or doing assigned tasks. She wanted the students to depend on themselves and classmates when they wrote; however, she found that the students needed her suggestions. In figure 4.1, the students were seated in groups and there were spaces between each group so that she could walk around. The researcher sat at the back of the class, close to the back door whilst observing. As noted in Gallagher (2010), assigning seats to students enables surveillance under the teacher's gaze in the classroom.

4.3.3 Teacher participant's description: Lina

Lina graduated with a Bachelor's degree majoring in English from a Thai university. She worked in a school in another province after graduating. She had taught English at this school for five years. At the time this research was conducted, she was teaching Grade 4 students. Regarding her prior experiences with teaching, she had many certificates in teacher professional training, organised by Mac Publishing, the Education Service Area Office, and PEERS. She had been trained in writing lesson plans, teaching techniques, and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). However, she stated that there was no particular training in writing in English.

From the interview and informal conversation, it emerged that Lina was taught with fundamental vocabulary, starting from Grade 5 with the "English is Fun" book, about 30 years ago. She learned to write simple sentences; nevertheless, writing in English was not frequent and students copied down in notebooks what the teacher wrote on a blackboard. During her secondary schooling, writing in English was more

intensive. Lina learnt sentence structures in order to write in English with more complicated structures. This made her write more often, and she felt that her writing skill improved.

Later, while at university, there were no foreign lecturers teaching writing in English. Lina learned to write simple passages and then wrote with more complex structures. In English courses, she was taught to write essays, descriptive and narrative stories, letters of application, responses to given topics, writing with forms and structure. She was more confident in writing in English.

In terms of teaching English to primary students, Lina has six year's experience of teaching writing in English. Significantly, her previous knowledge of writing method was applied to teach the students, for instance, vocabulary, sentence structure and grammar. The students were taught to write sentences then paragraphs, and then essays. She found that basically students required help in the form of a teacher explaining grammar and structure. Also, they lacked confidence in writing individually in English, even though they wrote with peers in groups.

Lina found that there were strengths in her teaching of writing. The students had learnt distinct grammatical structures and could practise writing with various structures. However, the weak points among her students were production, application and incorrect vocabulary usage. Lina had to guide them because they could not write by themselves.

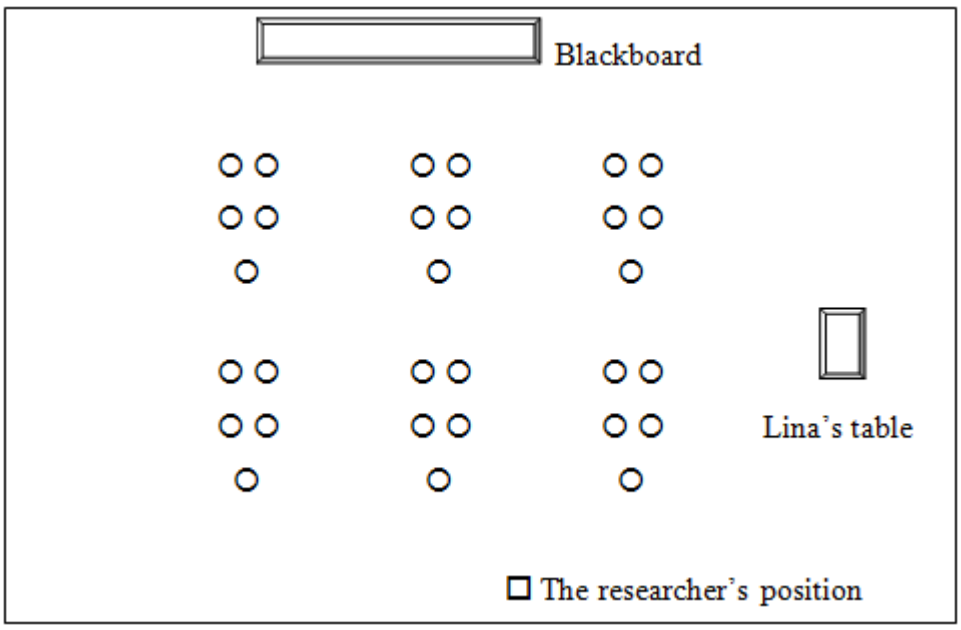


Figure 4.2. Lina's classroom arrangement.

From Figure 4.2, it can be seen that Lina's table was at the side of the classroom. Lina always stood in front of the class and sometimes walked around while teaching. She was active, energetic, and friendly. Since she taught Grade 4 students, who are at the first level of upper primary school, she generally started her lessons with games, songs, and quizzes. Even though the students sat in groups, they could perform or volunteer in activities at their seats and in front of the classroom. During classroom observations, the researcher sat at the back of the class close to the back door and sometimes walked around to visit each group. The students liked to ask the researcher for help as well. Hanaki (2007) argues that in order for the students to feel motivated to learn, the teacher needs to introduce some sense of discipline through activity structures, such as seat assignments or written independent work.

4.3.4 Grade 4-6 student participants' description

Students who participated in this study came from different cultural, socio-economic, and educational backgrounds as mentioned in 4.2: Setting. The number of

students in each class (Table 4.2) is approximately 30 students of each gender in total. Over seven weeks, the researcher collected data from Grade 4 to 6 students (aged 10-12). Data included their written work samples and video recordings of classroom activities, which were further used to analyse the learning environment and classroom activities. Their classrooms were observed by the researcher collecting information on the English language lessons. Students were not asked any questions directly by the researcher.

Most importantly, before entering the research site, official permission was obtained from the director of the school, and consent forms from the parents were collected. In order to guarantee that students' names remained confidential, all students were assigned pseudonyms and real names were kept separate from field notes.

4.4 DATA COLLECTION

The aim of this research was to investigate the multiple forms of English writing pedagogies in a mainstream classroom in Thailand, as well as issues of power that operate in the application of writing pedagogies. It specifically examines power relations associated with the ESL pedagogies that predominate in the international literature and curriculum materials, and their observable relations to the teaching of EFL writing in a Thai primary school. The type of data was qualitative, taking the form of description of the teaching situation and teaching procedures taking place during the fieldwork. Qualitative data were analysed descriptively soon after each teaching period was observed.

The data collected in this research included core data and supplemental data using a number of descriptive techniques, including classroom observation, digital audiotape recording, digital video recording, and fieldnote taking. The core data

based on Carspecken (1996), is data involved teachers' interviews and data from classroom observations, whereas the supplemental data (Carspecken, 1996) included students' written work samples and curriculum archives.

In order to enhance the validity of the study, comparison of multiple sources of evidence was carried out, cross-referencing core data and supplemental data (Merriam, 2009). Therefore, different methods of data collection were chosen to investigate the pedagogies typically used to teach English writing, participants' interaction, and students' writing work samples. The researcher collected data using an ethnographic approach that included semi-structured interviews and non-participant observations. Two interviews with Lina and Sopin were recorded and transcribed in Thai, and then translated into English for reporting the findings of the research. The main purpose of the classroom observations was to identify the teaching pedagogies for writing with EFL primary students and to investigate the relations of power in pedagogies implemented by Lina and Sopin. This data was later analysed, according to the research question, addressing aspects of power relations and pedagogies in the Thai context.

4.4.1 Classroom observation

One of the most important data sources was real classroom teaching and learning practices collected through direct observation. The researcher observed English lessons for three hours per week, over seven weeks consecutively during their English class period (approximately 50 minutes per period). In addition, classroom observation field notes were used to record interactions and events, supported by a digital camera and a digital audiotape-recorder. Students were informed that the researcher would observe English lessons only for seven weeks, and recordings would not affect the students' academic performance. Purcell-Gates

(2011) explains that classroom ethnography often positions the researcher closer to the observer end of the continuum. The ethnographer in classrooms is interested in such things as teacher-student transactions, learner beliefs and interpretations, and peer-group response, etc. Therefore, one important way to obtain classroom teaching, learning atmosphere, and student performance of English writing was through classroom observation.

As a non-participant observer, the researcher sat inside the classroom, observing and taking field notes during English lessons. Critical ethnography allows the researcher to gain insight into the power relations taking place in the institution (Carspecken, 1996). In Sopin's class, the researcher sat at the back of a classroom, whereas in Lina's class, the researcher sat near the exit door at the back of the classroom. My presence was hardly noticed, for the researcher entered the class via the back door while the students paid attention to the presence of their teacher.

Observation was important. The researcher observed the teaching procedures used in EFL writing classes, took notes, and used a digital video camera to record incidents related to the question during the observation. Classroom observation was a useful tool for examining the situations in the classrooms where this study was conducted. The observations were made in each class, with the teacher keeping a diary record. The observations were focused on the following aspects – the students' response to the teaching activities, their interest in writing activity, their classroom interactions with peers and the teachers, and their writing performance. The purpose of observations was to gain an understanding of how forms of power were exercised, the pedagogies implemented by the teachers, and the time students spent on various activities.

4.4.2 Field notes

Field notes were very important in this study because the researcher noted comments, such as teaching materials, teachers and students' interaction, and the classroom atmosphere, while attending to the detail of classroom activities (Brown, 2001; Creswell, 2004; Merriam, 1998). Consequently, to systematically record all features, field notes, which were written during and after observations, were kept throughout the research. During the 21 sessions of classroom activities, the researcher made observations of the teachers' interactions, the students' learning behaviours, and classroom activities, along with field notes to supplement digital audio recording.

Table 4.3 shows the sample of field-note conventions used in video transcripts and classroom observation field notes. Transcription conventions are used for actions, because action and speech are both important.

Table 4.3

Field note conventions

TA	Teacher Sopin who teaches 5th and 6th grades
TB	Teacher Lina who teaches 4th grade
SS	Students
S4.1	A student in Grade 4
S5.1	A student in Grade 5
S6.1	A student in Grade 6
L1	Thai language used by teachers and students
[…]	The researcher's comments

The following is an excerpt of field note journals recorded while the researcher was observing one of Lina's English classes. Before Lina began to teach this class, she asked her students to revise what they had learned the week before. The students concentrated on the class activities; for example, they read the worksheet, completed the exercises on the worksheet, and practised speaking a short dialogue with their partners.

An excerpt of field notes (*TB P4/1 210814 1*)

[1] TB: “Last week we learned the future simple tense and asking for directions. Now I’d like you to look at your worksheet carefully”. [The teacher gives the worksheets to the students, one each.]

[2] SS: [Remain silent. Look at the blackboard and write down in their notebooks.]

[3] S4.1: “Excuse me, where is the post office?” [The teacher points at the student. He stands up and asks the question.]

Purcell-Gates (2007) suggests that many literacy researchers supplement field notes with audio recording, which provides backup for researchers who may not be able to capture complex, fast-moving events in written field notes, such as classroom teaching, peer-group work, or play. Based on Carspecken (1996, pp. 45, 50-51, 59-61), observational field notes were summarised and added to “thick-field notes”. The transcribed data was then coded and grouped into a number of categories and themes as described further in this chapter. Each teacher was observed two times over seven weeks. Interviews were transcribed and field notes were added to create a thick description (Carspecken, 1996).

4.4.3 Semi-structured interviews with teacher participants

With regard to the research question, the researcher chose interviews as the main method to obtain information from the teacher participants. Semi-structured interviews (focused interviews) were carried out. Two semi-structured interviews were conducted in Thai, which is L1 for teacher participants. As DiCicco-Bloom and Crabtree (2006, p. 21) noted, semi-structured interviews are often the sole data source for a qualitative research project, and are usually scheduled in advance at a designated time and location outside of everyday events. Semi-structured interviews are generally “organised around a set of predetermined open-ended questions, with

other questions emerging from the dialogue between interviewer and interviewee/s" (DiCicco-Bloom & Benjamin, 2006, p. 315).

According to Burg (2004 cited in Mills, 2006), interviewing is recognised as a powerful method that helps researchers to access information about how participants come to their actual behaviours and perceive their own behaviours. Therefore, in this study, interviewing was used as an effective way to gather descriptive data about teacher participants' views of using English writing instructions. The main task in interviewing is to understand the meaning of what interviewees say (Valenzuela & Shrivastava, 2002).

Burns (2005) described interviews as a verbal exchange, in which an interviewer tries to elicit information about the way in which a person functions in their own environment (p. 423), and beliefs or opinions from another person. He further suggested that an advantage of the semi-structured interview is the ability of the informant to use their own perspective and the language natural to them rather than that of the researcher (p. 425).

Table 4.4

The interview schedule

Participants	Date	Duration (minutes)
Sopin	24 / 08 /2014	28.23
Lina	25 / 08 / 2014	31.14

Table 4.4 shows that two teacher participants at the public primary school in Thailand were interviewed in the Thai language after the 7th week for about 30 minutes each. This did not affect the working hours of these teachers and the school. The semi-structured interviews were digitally audio-recorded in the teachers' rooms, which were quiet and safe, so the teacher participants felt comfortable and relaxed to respond to 18 interview questions. Interviews were composed of three parts: Part I –

teacher background, Part II – Power themes, and Part III – Pedagogy themes. The language used during the interview was Thai because this investigation involved complex subject matter, to make teachers comfortable during interviewing, and best able to communicate their thoughts. The researcher aimed to use concrete examples and comprehensible language.

The interview schedule is included here (see Table 4.4). Each teacher participant was asked the first four questions shown in Table 4.5 about their background. These questions (Q.1-4) were used to develop demographic data about their teaching experiences and the individuals' English writing learning. The information from these questions provided a profile of each teacher's background in English language learning and teaching experience, and their opportunity to use and improve English, which helped the researcher gain insights about the participants' current practice.

Power questions (Q.5-11) were asked in order to investigate power relations exercised in the curriculum between the teachers and the students. For instance, the researcher asked Q.5: "Could you tell me about the English course syllabus used in this school?" This type of question helped the researcher to examine how the teachers interpreted the curriculum and designed the English course syllabus, which links back to the strands of the curriculum in order to benefit most students.

Questions 12-18 enabled the researcher to gain deeper insight the teachers' knowledge of writing pedagogy. These questions also provided data about their teaching experiences and their attitudes over each implemented writing approach. For example, questions included: "Do you think the pedagogies that you use help your students improve writing skills? If yes, please explain how? If no, why do you think it is a case?"

The following table shows 18 questions in a semi-structured interview with teacher participants. These questions are categorised based on themes.

Table 4.5

Interview questions

Part I Teacher background
1. What was teaching and learning to write in English like when you were in primary, secondary and university levels?
2. Could you tell me about your experiences when teaching writing to primary students? Do you think you can apply the knowledge and skills from your previous teacher training to the students? How?
3. What do you think are the main factors in learning to write in English? What strong and weak points of yourself do you find when teaching writing in English?
4. From where and how do you have an improvement in teaching writing to primary school students?
Part II Power themes
5. Could you tell me about the English course syllabus used in this school?
6. How closely is it associated with the Thai National Curriculum?
7. How do you apply teaching/learning approaches to primary students and do you find it difficult to apply?
8. Do you implement a learner-centred approach according to the curriculum? If so, how do you design relevant activities by which students can themselves construct and follow up knowledge?
9. Have you ever introduced current or new teaching writing strategies into your classroom? If yes, what influences you to do that?
10. What is the writing class like? How can you control the students' writing work in the class?
11. How do you know that the class makes progress in English writing skills? Do you exam them every class? If so, please give examples.
Part III Pedagogy themes
12. Do you use the process-based approach when you teach writing? If so, how do you use it? Please give examples.
13. Do you use the product-based approach when you teach writing? If so, how do you use it? Please give examples.
14. Do you use the genre-based approach when you teach writing? If so, how do you use it? Please give examples.
15. Do you use the communicative approach when you teach writing? If so, how do you use it? Please give examples.
16. Could you tell me about the overall pedagogies you use in your classroom?
17. Do you think the pedagogies that you use help your students improve writing skills? If yes, please explain how? If no, why do you think it is a case?
18. What approaches of teaching writing do you often apply, and why?

An example of the specific questions and teacher responses that addressed the power relation theme ‘pastoral power’ is as follow:

Question 8: Do you implement a learner-centred approach according to the curriculum? If so, how do you design relevant activities by which students can construct and follow up knowledge by themselves?

Sopin’s answer was:

To permit student to organise and select writing topics according to their own interests. Students then evaluate individual progress in learning English writing with teachers acting as advisors and facilitators.

The questions about teaching pedagogies were used to investigate the activities the teachers organised, the material they used in class, and their implementation of the pedagogies. Question 17 was asked to gain insight into the current practice of pedagogies that the teachers use in the classrooms and the opinions from the teachers when they use those pedagogies. This gives information about the advantages and disadvantages that teachers perceive about specific pedagogies.

Question 17: Do you think the pedagogies that you use help your students improve writing skills? If yes, please explain how? If no, why do you think it is a case?

Lina stated:

I think the current pedagogies could help the students improve their writing skills because they could practise the vocabularies and could learn more vocabularies. With repeated using of the sentence structure, students could understand, remember and write the sentences by themselves. I usually reviewed and gave them many examples, so most of them could improve their writing. They could write in different patterns, apply mind mapping and write questioning and answering sentences.

4.4.4 Video recordings of English lessons

In this research, multimodal data were collected through digital audio recording, video recording, and photographing events. Video recording of students' activities allowed the researcher to record and replay the pictures and sounds within a classroom teaching and learning event (Mondada, 2012; Uhrenfeldt, Paterson, & Hall, 2007). Video recording also captured the visual and audio aspects of the teacher interviews.

Jewitt (2012) states that video recording provides a researcher with opportunities for accurate analysis of data. Also, video recording classroom activities enables a researcher to capture all details in a live setting. Video can provide "a fine-grained record" (Jewitt, 2012, p. 6) of an event detailing gaze, expression, body posture, gesture, and so on. Similarly, Purcell-Gates (2012) asserts that the researcher can replay the recorded data as many times as required to make sure that the data were analysed correctly and accurately, such as in gestures and prosody. That is, video is a multimodal record in which talk is kept in context and all modes are recorded sequentially.

In this study, video data gave the researcher insight into the consistency between the field note journal and students' ongoing behaviour. However, using video effectively requires determining appropriate research questions and identifying types of data required beforehand, to inform study design (Mondada, 2012). The video recorder was only used to record classroom activities, and the audio recorder was used to record the interviews as well as classroom lessons. These video recordings were further used to analyse the learning environment and classroom activities.

As Jewitt (2012) noted, it is arguable that just as the audio recorder gave linguists "new kinds of access to speech and voice" which in turn supported and demanded the development of linguistic theories and methods, video recording has enabled "the expansion of the repertoire of researchers" (p. 6).

4.4.5 Coding methods

In this study, the code was based on Carspecken's (1996, pp. 146-151) coding methods. Hierarchical coding was conducted following Carspecken (1996), identifying the low level codes, such as the participants' own words, regrouping those codes into my categories. This involved continually moving between the data and the literature. The codes reported here are those that consistently appeared during the stage of coding themes to confirm observations of *Pedagogy* and *Power* in the Thai classrooms – the focus of this research. The researcher systematically coded words, phrases, and sentences relevant to the analysis of writing pedagogies and the power relations that were observed in English writing classrooms.

Low-level coding was conducted from the primary record to present the regular events or routines that Carspecken (1996, p. 147) describes as, "mainly objective features of the primary record open to multiple access". This low-level coding was done in Stage Two. These are examples of low-level codes, which happened during the classroom interactions; 'Yes', 'Everyone', 'Attention!', and 'Please'. Each of these words was coded 'Low-level codes'. The researcher heard these participant terms regularly in the interactions between the teachers and their students.

In contrast, high-level coding (Carspecken, 1996, p. 148) was conducted in Stages Three to Five, because data analysis from the interviews was completed and coding methods begun. High-level codes are codes reconstructed from data analysis (Carspecken, 1996). Carspecken also notes that "High-level codes are dependent on

greater amounts of abstraction" (p. 148). In this study, high-level coding inventions were derived from interview data and classroom observational field notes. Coding conventions from both interviews and field notes were compared and matched to represent meaningful analysis. Carspecken (1996) points out that higher-level codes are generally based on explicit meaning reconstructions and horizon analysis. Higher-level codes are important to "generalise the findings that emerge from various forms of data analysis..." (Carspecken, 1996, p. 150).

The examples of high-level codes were based on the themes: *Power* and *Pedagogy*, and sub-themes, such as coercive power, reward power, and group work, are shown below.

- The students were seated, looking at Lina. (space, surveillance)
- Lina looked around to see if every student was seated and then she started greeting them. (space, surveillance, gaze)

Carspecken (1996) addresses the importance of high-level coding in that it is useful for choosing analytic emphases to be employed in the final write up. The coding of transcripts is provided in section 4.6 of this chapter and also in Appendix B.

4.5 OVERCOMING TRANSCRIPTION AND TRANSLATION CONCERNS

The questions for the semi-structured interviews were first written in English, and then translated into Thai by the researcher and checked by a professional translator who is expert in both Thai and English. This translator is a lecturer in Chiang Mai Rajabhat University. She received a Master's Degree in English translation from Mahidol University in Thailand, and also has long-term experience as a professional translator. The final drafts of interview questions were examined by the researcher's principal supervisor. Initially, the researcher transcribed the Thai

interview transcripts of this study. After that, the transcriptions were translated back into English, and then were professionally checked by the translator.

The final excerpts presented in this thesis were also edited by the thesis supervisors, as the Thai grammatical forms did not always have precisely equivalent meanings in English, and the transcripts needed to be comprehensible to predominantly English-speaking readers. Research supervisors also suggested that the translations should follow correct English grammar in the final thesis. It is acknowledged that the translation and transcription of data, no matter how rigorous, always adds layers of epistemological implications and consequences for the final research (Temple & Young, 2004). To account for the potential "sanitisation of the data" (Temple & Young, 2004, p. 173), the layered process of translation is acknowledged here for transparency, and the original transcripts in the Thai language and the first English translation are provided in Appendix B.

4.6 DATA ANALYSIS

All sources of data were used. The multiple sources of data helped to ensure the validity of the findings. Three elements of the data were analysed. First, the researcher concentrated on teachers' pedagogies in English writing. Secondly, the researcher focused on issues of power in ESL writing pedagogies that influence the application of EFL writing instruction in the Thai context. Finally, the *2008 Basic Education Core Curriculum*, English was used to investigate the pedagogies implemented in the Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in Thailand. A component of the literacy framework was underpinned by sociocultural theory, which was significant to the study of language learning strategies in context.

The interpretive approach of content analysis was employed for the two teacher participants in this study to explore the transcripts for thoughts and knowledge, and

for application of English writing pedagogies. The framework of this study was based on existing theoretical concepts of English writing pedagogies. Not all the students' work samples collected were analysed in detail because that would be beyond the scope of this research. Rather, some of the students' writing work samples were used as examples to illustrate the tasks that teachers assign students in the Thai context.

It should be noted that in accordance with Carspecken's five stages, the techniques of data analysis in this research include the procedure of on-going analysis in which the data were checked and re-checked, interpreted, and reinterpreted, in order to ensure the reliability of the data analysis.

4.6.1 Analysis of the field notes

For field notes, the researcher took notes using both English and Thai language. The researcher also developed one set of categories for interviewing the teachers. For instance, categories in the teacher interviews were approaches to teaching writing, writing strategies, and other specific themes introduced in the theoretical framework (Chapter 3). The researcher used codes as the abbreviation, such as SS for students, S1 for the first student's writing sample, and TA for Sopin. The researcher categorised the themes by the roles of the teacher participants, the role of the students, and activities in classrooms. The researcher re-read and checked the coding multiple times to make the interpretation more certain. An example of the field note format can be seen in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6

An example of field notes (TB P4/1 140814 3)

Date / Time	Classroom observation	Power codes	Pedagogy codes
14.08.2014	[M = 12, F = 12 absent 3]		
9:00	TB: Good morning, students. How are you today? [..smiles and looks around]	Teacher's gaze	Classroom greeting
	SS: Good morning teacher. I'm fine, thank you. And you?	Greeting	Language functions: practise greeting
	TB: I'm very well, thank you. First let's see who is absent today. [..has a name list and starts calling out the students' names..]	Observation	
	Manu: Teacher Lina, Malee is sick today. [stands up and raises his hand]	Surveillance	
9:10	TB: Thank you, Manu.	Verbally reward	
	TB: Everyone, read these words aloud. Ready? [word cards in her hands]	Observation	Vocabulary practising
	SS: Yes, teacher.		
	TB: Now, anyone I give these cards to must stand up and read and spell a word on the card you have loudly. [gives a card to each of ten students, facing a card down on their desks.]	Reproduction Observation	
	Weera: Plant, p-l-a-n-t.		Drill
	TB: Good job.	Verbally reward	Drill individually
	Somjai: Grow, g-r-o-w.		
	TB: Good.	Praise	Spelling drill

Field note conventions: TB = Teacher Lina who taught 4th grade, SS = students, […] = the researcher's comments.

In terms of analysis, Carspecken (1996) suggested sources of information come from comprehensive records of a social site which is composed of social interactions. Therefore, besides a record of observations and field notes, interviews and video recordings were used to examine broader social interactions.

4.6.2 Analysis of interview transcripts

Interview data required content analysis. For digital audio-recorded interviews, the first step was to listen to the recorded interviews and to transcribe them. The transcripts were sent back to the teachers to check and confirm that the transcripts reflected exactly what they had said. The transcription was followed by the

researcher's translation from Thai into English, which was then was checked by a translator. It should be noted here that the translation was verbatim. However, since there is a different language system between Thai and English, some sentences were rewritten and changed, such as the use of pronoun 'I'. For example, "*We organise a writing task almost every period.*" The pronoun '*We*' in this sentence means Lina herself. The reason why she used 'We' instead of 'I' to refer to herself was to represent herself as 'teachers' (see also Appendix B).

Table 4.7

Sample of interview transcripts: Lina

Question no.	Transcription	Coding/Analysis
5.	The English curriculum used in the school was based on the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008) in which the teaching process was the 3Ps communicative approach and other theories applied for teaching. It was not all a student-centred approach, but a combination of teacher-centred approaches and student-centred approaches because the teachers sometimes had to guide the learners.	Bio-power was demonstrated here because the curriculum was brought to practise or reproduce in the EFL classrooms by teacher Lina.
7.	At present, teaching writing in English was teaching the structure in order that the students could understand clearly and could apply these with the given structures. However, there was a problem with their writing process because when students wrote in English, they depended on their explicit understanding and a limited corpus of vocabulary. Thus, teaching writing in English to the primary students was quite difficult.	Disciplinary power was exercised since Lina used techniques of surveillance and gaze when she observed her students' learning behaviour and examined their English learning development.
9.	I let the students write from short stories they read gradually. They were motivated to practise writing, but this strategy consumed much time. I had only 2 hours per week for the English language classes. Writing short stories encouraged them to practise writing, which did not cover all the indicators, so there were other new strategies to develop their writing skills.	Disciplinary power was exhibited because Lina controlled the steps of writing tasks (normalisation). Lina also observed the students' progress in writing, so she knew who improved and who needed more assistance (hierarchical observation).
16.	For overall pedagogies applied in my classroom, I occasionally started from games or songs at a warm-up stage to prepare the students for the lessons. Then content and sentence structures were presented. The students	It was obvious here that Lina used activities, strategies, and materials to teach her students,

	practised new vocabularies, simple affirmative, question and answer sentences. The students practised sentence structures, speaking, and writing. They also worked on worksheets individually or in groups. I advised and assisted them if they needed help. The students preferred to do the activities in the class; hence it was a lively class and a good learning environment.	following the whole language approach. She focused on student-centred teaching. Surveillance was exercised when she observed her students' behaviour and encouraged them to learn enthusiastically. Pastoral power was also exhibited when a student-centred approach enabled the teacher to be a facilitator.

Table 4.8

Sample of interview transcripts: Sopin

Question no.	**Transcription**	**Coding/Analysis**
8.	A student-centred approach was implemented and other knowledge was integrated, such as words about apparel and seasons. The students applied knowledge of weather to describe how to dress appropriately in each season. There were also integration of English language with health science and arts, such as drawing a picture of your favourite season and describing it in English.	Bio-power was exhibited when Sopin implemented a student-centred approach, which was dictated in the curriculum. Pastoral power was evident in the students' reproduction of Sopin's teaching.
10.	In the classroom, they were assigned to complete individual work. The students sometimes did not answer my questions nor had any responses. It was a teacher-centred rather than a student-centred classroom. I advised and made comments on their writing work in order that they could learn from their mistakes and could correct their own work.	Disciplinary power was exposed in her writing classes because Sopin monitored her students' learning behaviours. Pastoral power was exhibited because Sopin assisted and guided the students in doing writing tasks.
11.	It could be identified from their work and their writing performance. I knew whether the students developed in English writing skills or not. The students were not tested in every class. I gave them marks to their writing work, such as writing a mind map and spelling vocabulary correctly. The tests were in multiple choices form, true or false and writing to describe pictures for example.	Disciplinary power was exercised since Sopin saw her students' writing performance and recorded this information. Punishment in terms of reward power was also exhibited when she gave a high score to students' work, whereas a low score for some students' work could be interpreted as

		coercive punishment.
18.	Vocabulary introduced in my class, such as the students chose words to fill in the gaps. The students also wrote their biography, wrote about their families and their school. They practised writing passages. This approach was usually applied. Furthermore, the students read passages and wrote the answers. These passages were not complicated. The vocabulary and contents were easy to understand, appropriate for their knowledge and related to the school context.	Sopin mentioned vocabulary learning, writing activities, reading and writing activities, which are based on the whole language approach.

4.6.3 Analysis of the video transcriptions

Video recordings were transcribed into Thai, and then translated into English. Transcriptions were read over several times while certain parts of the recording were replayed for accuracy. The aim of using video recording in the classroom was to support the researcher's field notes during observations. Kawulich (2005) suggests that data from written field notes can be more accurate when combined with information from multiple sources (Creswell, 1998; Patton, 2002). This supported the interpretation of the findings observed or observations in the classroom (Merriam, 1991). The examples of video recordings and video transcription format can be seen in Figure 4.3 together with Excerpt 3.

Figure 4.3. A capture from video recordings.

Excerpt 3

S6.1: I'm writing only 3 sentences. [Finishes and waits for other friends to complete the assignment]

S6.2: S6.1, Do we have to write 3 sentences each?

S6.1: Yes, of course. We have made a deal. Choose 3 adjectives to make sentences.

S6.2: But…I need help. I'm not sure about the grammar. Who checks the grammar?

Field note conventions: S6.1 = A student in Grade 6 no. 1, S6.2 = A student in Grade 6 no. 2, […] = the researcher's comments

According to the researcher's observations, the students interacted with each other while working in their group. A student 6.2 had difficulty with a writing task, so she asked her friends for help. The researcher also observed that the students mostly asked about grammar rules and sentence structures, since they were not confident in producing their written work. Although the students were allowed to ask for help from their teachers, few of them asked questions. Rather they preferred discussing problems in their group. In […], the researcher noted that a student 6.1 was working quickly and was offering to assist her group with grammar checking. An analysis regarding pedagogy and power, which was evident in Excerpt 3, will be further provided in Chapter 5.

The coding conventions here were used in analysis of video data, which later were matched with the codes from observational field notes in order to confirm that interpretation was accurate. It should be noted that the three classrooms (Grade 4 to 6) were video-recorded in the seventh week, because video was needed to capture classroom observation and interactions. Video excerpts will provide evidence to support the findings in Chapter 5 (see also Appendix D).

Table 4.9

Sample of coding conventions for video data

Video clips	Power codes	Pedagogy codes
Excerpt 1	- Quick! **DP-E** - (Keep writing) **PP-I**	- she doesn't clean her room. **GR-t** - C-L-E-A-N **WC-s**
Excerpt 3	- …(Keep silent and pay attention to what she's writing)… **PP-I** - Let me finish drawing and you write the vocabularies. **PP-I**	- I'll get a dictionary. **S-LA**
Excerpt 4	- Why's it not correct? **DP-E** - (Erased and corrected the sentence.) **BP-P** - They kept doing the assignment, which is writing sentences to describe the pictures. **BP-D, PP-T**	- It's incorrect. **W-pc** - It's happier than.. it's –ier, not –yer **W-pc**
Excerpt 6	- Hurry up, you'll need to finish it in 5 minutes. **DP-E**	- Let's swap and check. **W-pc**
Excerpt 7	- Yes, of course. We have made a deal. **DP-n**	- Choose 3 adjectives to make sentences. **GR-s** - Who checks the grammar? **LA-s**

The conventions appearing in Table 4.9 are described as follows.

GR-t	**Grammar** – tense		
GR-s	**Grammar** – sentence patterns	**DP**-Ho	**Disciplinary power –** hierarchical observation
GR-adj	**Grammar** – adjectives	**DP**-Nj	**Disciplinary power –** normalising judgement
GR-tsw	**Grammar** – transitional words	**DP**-E	**Disciplinary power –** examination
WC-s	**Word choice** – spelling	**BP**-D	**Bio-power**-discipline
W-pc	**Writing** – process based	**BP**-P	**Bio-power**-reproduction (pastoral power)
W-pd	**Writing** – product based	**PP**-T	**Pastoral power**-totalisation
W-gr	**Writing** – genre based	**PP**-I	**Pastoral power**-individual
S-LA	**Learning approach** – student centred	**RP**	**Reward power**
T-LA	**Learning approach** – teacher centred	**CP**	**Coercive power**
WC-syn	**Word choice** – synonyms	**S**	**Space**
W-ind	**Writing** – individuals	**SV**	**Surveillance**

W-ps **Writing** – peers

W-para **Writing** – paragraph structure

4.6.4 Coding themes

Coding within data analysis is the most difficult and important step in qualitative research; also it is vital to reduce, organise, and make textual data meaningful. The approach to descriptive data analysis in this research followed the coding method described by Carspecken (1996) for ethnographic researchers. Moreover, researcher and readers are able to interpret data that is systematically categorised, and have confidence that the repeated themes are not incidental events. As Coffey and Atkinson (1996 as cited in Basit, 2010, p. 144) point out, codes are links between locations in the data and sets of concepts or ideas, and they are in that sense heuristic devices which enable the researcher to go beyond the data. The researcher coded what the participants said, which was supported by the video recordings, and the visual record of events, participant gestures, and movements, to contextualise these verbal meanings more holistically than if audio recording were used in isolation.

Carspecken (1996) believed that the coding procedures are appropriate for reconstructive analysis of data. The researcher followed the coding procedures suggested by Carspecken (1996), since he suggests that coding can be carried out as soon as the primary record has been completed or nearly completed. For example, the researcher selected key words, such as ‘pedagogy’, ‘genre approach’, ‘direct instruction’, ‘teaching writing’, ‘literacy’, and ‘power’ to be coded. The key theories used to interpret the codes and findings were outlined in Chapter 3 – Theoretical Framework.

The codes assigned to the interviews, field notes and video transcripts are presented in the following tables (Table 4.10 and Table 4.11), showing categories of themes and sub-themes that emerged from all the data sets. Following the tables are description and justification of each table.

Table 4.10

Theme I and sub-themes: Power

Code description / category	Code symbol	Code example from the data sets
Disciplinary power – hierarchical observation	**DP**-Ho	TA: Everyone, listen up carefully. [looked around and waited until the class was quiet]
Disciplinary power – normalising judgement	**DP**-Nj	TA: Yes, I have told you before.
Disciplinary power – examination	**DP**-E	Tana finished writing three sentences, and then he asked his friend, "Have you finished drawing? We need to be faster." [group work, they were preparing for the presentation]
Bio-power-discipline	**BP**-D	TB: First, write down the grammar rules on your notebook, and then the examples I am writing here on the blackboard. You note them down. Understand? Then I'll explain this grammar.
Bio-power-reproduction (pastoral power)	**BP**-P	Students listened to Lina and repeated after her. [Lina was reading sentence by sentence.]
Pastoral power-totalisation	**PP**-T	After practising with a whole class at Practice stage (3Ps), Malee continued her writing task until she finished by herself.
Pastoral power-individual	**PP**-I	I wanted to finish my writing part. You do your part.
Reward power	**RP**	Everyone, Sura gave the correct answers. Let's give him a big hand.
Coercive power	**CP**	No, Tom. Get back to your seat. Unless you finish this task first, you cannot go out to play football.
Space	**S**	The students' rows of desks. Recreation space at the back of the classroom
SV	**Surveillance**	Lina stood at the front door of the classroom and watched the students to see if they were seated properly.

Table 4.11

Theme II and sub-themes: Pedagogy

Code description / category	Code symbol	Code example from the data sets
Grammar – tense	**GR-t**	I go.. [correct: I went…]
Grammar – sentence patterns	**GR-s**	She name is….
Grammar – adjectives	**GR-adj**	Good healthy food
Grammar – transitional words	**GR-tsw**	First
Word choice – spelling	**WC-s**	Hoter [correct; hotter] Coala [correct: koala]
Writing – process based	**W-pc**	Plan to write Group work
Writing – product based	**W-pd**	Write up Fill in the blanks
Writing – genre based	**W-gr**	A letter to pen pal Mother's Day cards
Learning approach – student-centred	**S-LA**	Plan to present group work Create posters
Learning approach – teacher-centred	**T-LA**	Explain grammar verbally Use textbooks [majorly]
Word choice – synonyms	**WC-syn**	-
Writing – individuals	**W-ind**	A greeting card A fruit vocabulary mind map
Writing – peers	**W-ps**	Comparative sentences Pair work Exchange notebooks for marking
Writing – paragraph structure	**W-para**	Five to ten sentences Short passage Read and write to retell the story

4.6.5 Using curriculum documents to contextualise observed practices data

Previously, both published and unpublished documents were analysed in this research. Curriculum documents, ESL and EFL documents, articles, and textbooks were published documents; unpublished documents were the English course syllabuses for the primary school levels, and the associated teaching materials in Thailand. The purpose of this document analysis was to examine the relevant policies and their movement from ESL teaching contexts to the Thai EFL pedagogical context. The researcher also gathered documents and artefacts related to this study including student teaching materials, writing samples, English course syllabus, tests and other related documents. These documents were a valuable source of data since

they were not created for the purpose of research (Merriam, 1991). Instead, they represented students' writing performance and teachers' pedagogies for English writing.

With regards to English as a compulsory subject at the primary school level (Grade 1-6), the Office of Basic Education Commission (OBEC), Ministry of Education dictates the learning strands and standards of the Foreign Languages Core Curriculum (see also Appendix A). *The Basic English curriculum 2008* for Grades 4-6 focuses on communicative writing (OBEC, 2008); therefore, the following analysis and interpretation acknowledges the contextual influence of these curriculum documents that address pedagogic issues. These include an emphasis on particular writing pedagogies, including the learner-centred approach and the use of communicative language teaching. Evidence of the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach, which is a major objective of Thai Educational reform, is specified in *the Basic Education Curriculum 2001* in the section 'Language for communication', as indicated below.

> Strand 1: Language for Communication
>
> Standard 1.1: Understanding of and capacity to interpret what has been heard and read from various types of media, and ability to express opinions with proper reasoning.
>
> Standard 1.2: Endowment with language communication skills for exchange of data and information; efficient expression of feelings and opinions.
>
> Standard 1.3: Ability to present data, information, concepts and views about various matters through speaking and writing.
>
> (OBEC, 2008, p. 21)

This curriculum focuses on the ability to communicate (OBEC, 2001). This emphasis on communicative writing is apparent in the revised 2008 curriculum, which is the most recent and relevant curriculum policy at this time. Consequently, in the lessons observed in this research, there was an observed emphasis in schools on the encoding communicative skills, speaking, and writing skills.

4.6.6 Analysis of the student work samples

Another important source of data was selecting students' work samples for this research. As such, the writing work samples of students were chosen to be a manageable and a suitable size for analysing data within the scope of this research.

O'Mullane (1994) advises that documents are the permanent evidence and record of decision-making. Documents are often used by ethnographic researchers of literacy. In this research, documents refer to students' writing samples, which were used to document literacy learning and practice. Students' written work samples, both classroom and homework written assignments, were collected as part of understanding teacher pedagogies and the learning that was observed throughout the study.

The researcher collected students' writing samples over the data collection period. The writing samples were collected after the teachers had assessed them and recorded their results. Not all written artefacts were collected; however, as data collection was determined by sessions that engaged in literacy learning.

The Monkey is small.
The moese is smaller.
The fish is smallest.

ThE dog is fat.
The coala is fatter.
The panda is fattest.

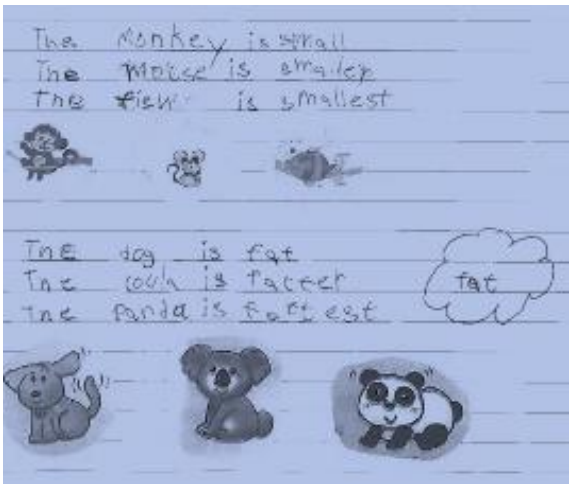


Figure 4.4. A student's writing sample.

As seen in Figure 4.4, this fourth grade student wrote the English alphabet incorrectly: Monkey and ThE. Also the student spelled incorrectly: 'moese' for 'mouse' and 'coala' instead of 'koala'. From Lina's answer to interview question no. 11, the researcher learned that the students started learning English intensively when they were in Grade 4. Lina also mentioned that the students used capital letters and small letters incorrectly in a word or in a sentence. Moreover, some students could not remember all 26 of the English alphabet letters. However, this student's writing sample illustrates that the student reproduced his knowledge of comparative adjectives. He wrote three sentences using comparative and superlative adjectives, even though he missed 'the' in the superlative sentences. In relation to power, it can be said that pastoral power was exhibited since the student learned the lesson and tried to reproduce knowledge they learned from the teacher. Further data analysis of students' work samples will be demonstrated in section 5.1.2.

4.7 TRUSTWORTHINESS REQUIREMENTS FOR ETHNOGRAPHY

In order to confirm the trustworthiness of the findings, multiple sources of data were used to theorise the working of power and pedagogy in the teaching of English

in Thai primary school classrooms, including teacher interviews, classroom observations, and educational policy document analysis. Multiple sources of data including classroom observations, interviews, field notes, and artefacts were used to compare and crosscheck the accuracy of collected data. It is argued that multiple sources of data can significantly contribute to the credibility of findings relying on "multiple forms of evidence rather than a single source of data" (Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Miller, 2000, p. 127).

The researcher aimed to meet Carspecken's trustworthiness requirements for critical ethnography research (Carspecken, 1996). Member checking was one of the important ways to check participants' information (Carspecken, 1996), by repeating what the researcher heard or asking them to clarify what they said while the researcher interviewed them. It required the teacher participants and the researcher to spend about two hours to check the recorded interviews. Carspecken (1996) points out that trustworthiness reconstructions make "the analysis of setting shifts and negotiations more precise" (p. 120).

4.8 ETHICS, AND SELF-REFLEXIVITY OF THE RESEARCHER

The ethical considerations in this research included concerns about participants' rights and sensitivity of information about personal and professional values, attitudes, and experiences. As such, before entering the research site, official permission was obtained by contacting the relevant personnel, such as the director of the school, the teachers, and the parents of the students. The research objectives and procedures were articulated in permission forms submitted to the relevant personnel so that they were clearly understood. The researcher collected written permission to proceed. The researcher also followed all ethical guidelines of Queensland University of Technology [Approval number 1400000492]. (see also Appendix E)

While an ethnographic approach enables a researcher to gain primary data through classroom observation and semi-structured interviews with teacher participants, it was imperative to keep in mind that the presence of a researcher should not influence or interrupt classroom observations. The researcher's role as the primary data collection instrument obliges the identification of personal values, since an ethnographic approach allows researchers to observe interviewees in their natural setting (Creswell, 2003). This issue was reduced in impact by introducing the researcher as an observer who did not have the role of undertaking assessment and evaluation in the site. In addition, before collecting data, the researcher explained that learning progress would not be interrupted, hindered or harmed. Further, the parent-student consent form clearly states that this research did not affect the evaluation and assessment of students' English.

The selection of teacher participants was on the basis of criteria provided in section 4.3.1. Two teacher participants were selected to participate in this study. They were informed of the purposes and procedures of the research. The research did not affect their normal classes nor disturb their teaching processes. Moreover, they were informed of their freedom to withdraw or discontinue from the research at any time. Most importantly, the teacher participants' names, position, and institution were kept confidential through the use of pseudonyms.

The researcher also reassured the parents that when writing up the research and analysing written work samples, the researcher would use pseudonyms and keep all information confidential. Students' samples were published, but the students' identities were protected. Moreover, the video recording during classroom observations was transcribed in such a way that names were changed and the information about allocation of codes was stored separately from the coded data.

Furthermore, the researcher explained that the data would be made available to be accessed only to the researcher and her supervisors.

Additionally, the classes were observed for seven weeks successively during English lessons. Although students were not directly involved in the interviews, the researcher obtained consent from parents for their child to be present while the researcher observed the classroom teaching and learning environment. In order to guarantee that students' names remained confidential, all students were assigned pseudonyms and real names were kept separate from field notes.

The perspectives of the researcher are important to critical research, which implies that the researcher must be ready to accept any new aspects or new ideas. Carspecken (1996) recommended Gidden's (1984) notion of reflexivity as necessary to the research process, which means the continuous monitoring of a person's actions and thoughts. Self-reflection assists in the maintenance of the researcher's critical views, principles, concepts, strengths, and weaknesses throughout the procedure of the study. Therefore, the self-reflexivity of the researcher impacts the presence of the researcher in the classroom, the research site, and the research procedures.

4.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE METHODOLOGY

The limitations of this research are related to the use of ethnographic research and the data collection schedule. First, due to the small scale classroom settings and participants, the findings of this research cannot be generalised to writing pedagogies used across all Thai EFL contexts.

The teacher participants and students in this research are from one primary school in a rural area in Chiang Mai, Thailand, which may not represent the diversity of EFL contexts in Thailand. This limitation is characteristic of ethnographic

research that seeks to obtain rich participant descriptions from a local site, rather than comparative data from a large number of sites and participants. Rather, a strength of ethnography is to gain a holistic understanding of the participants (Pane, 2009), and also of their environment through direct observations and interviews to clarify observations with the participants (Carspecken, 1996).

Second, the methodology of this research includes semi-structured interviews with only two teacher participants and classroom observations that were limited to seven weeks of field work during the school term, while overseas on an Australian scholarship. Consequently, even though the group of teachers and the rural site in Chiang Mai is typical of many other Thai EFL contexts, particularly mainstream classrooms with a proportion of minority students, the short duration of data collection must be understood as one snapshot in time within the yearly implementation of the curriculum. However, the repeated patterns in the data are sufficient to theorise teachers' implementation of pedagogies and the immediate and observed power relations that influence the EFL curriculum.

4.10 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the rationale for choosing the critical ethnographic method as a methodology was presented: it assists researchers to uncover social actions in real world settings, as opposed to a laboratory or experimental group, and to interpret these through the use of theories. A critical ethnographic approach enables a researcher to explicate ideology and power relations through the reconstruction of meaning, and through a conceptualisation of broader social relations (Carspecken, 1996).

Foucault's view (as cited in Luke, 2000) is that discourse is not the sovereign production of human subjects, but in fact, takes on a life of its own, constructing

peoples' identities, realities, and social relations; that is, that we are produced by discourse as much as we are producers of discourse. Practically, this translates into a classroom focus on identifying the dominant cultural discourses – themes, ideologies – in texts and discussing how these discourses attempt to position and construct readers, their understandings and representations of the world, their social relations, and their identities (p. 6).

The use of critical ethnography was also justified in relation to the research question, which recognises the ideological nature of social practices in language classrooms and in society. Carspecken (1996) states that the purpose of critical social research "attempts to construct a tight methodological theory by making use of various insights from critical social theory" (p. 3). Critical ethnography was also a powerful method to study uses of language in classrooms interactions, exploring which kinds of power were exercised. Therefore, data collected from classrooms observation, field note journals, and semi-structured interviews yielded an understanding of how teacher-student interactions and student-student interactions exhibited power relations. Moreover, interactive power was claimed in observing classroom interactions (Carspecken, 1996).

In addition, this chapter discussed the five-stage research design, and detailed data collection and analytic procedures. Carspecken (1996) articulates and describes each stage of a five-stage model for doing critical qualitative research. The stages of the critical ethnographic methodology enabled the researcher to undertake field work and data collection together with data analysis within a school. Also, a critical ethnographic method based on Carspecken (1996) demonstrated coding methods using low-level and high-level codes of the interactions and actions in the primary record, regarding power relations and pedagogies implemented in the classrooms.

Finally, trustworthiness, ethics, and a self-reflexive account of the researcher were addressed with an acknowledgment of the research limitations. Critical epistemology examines actions by differentiating between people's ontologies (Cervetti et al., 2001); "theories about existence making it possible to formulate diverse truth claims" (Carspecken, 1996, p.20). A truth claim (Carspecken, 1996) is an explicit or implicit assertion that can be "judged to be true or false, right or wrong, good or bad, correct or incorrect" (p.59). Chapter 5 will discuss the findings from the data analysis.

Chapter 5: Research Findings

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This study brings together the two notions, which are power relations and writing pedagogies in an analysis of Thai EFL classrooms. Importantly, in Thailand, the direction of EFL writing pedagogies is tied up with educational policies, which are formulated and forced by factors like global influence, Asia-Pacific regional education policy (Nunan, 2003), and Thai economics (Mackey, 2003). The Ministry of Education (MOE, 2002) has undertaken several steps to promote the teaching and learning of English for communicative purposes. These include formulation of a 2005-2015 long-term strategic plan to increase the ability of Thais to use English to communicate, as well as a plan to review the entire system of English teaching and learning (Khanarat & Nomura, 2008).Thus, this research is vital because writing is central to the acquisition of a second language and requires the use of symbols and meaning systems as a tool for communication and transferring knowledge, ideas, feelings, and emotions (Scribner & Cole, 1991).

Moreover, writing is a significant tool in cultural transmission (Myles, 2002), used to empower or disempower individuals. Applying Foucault's notion of power provides an understanding of the power relations that operate in Thai contexts of English teaching pedagogies. For example, students may receive different rewards for their ability to produce the desired texts, discourses and performances in the writing classroom (Mills, 2011). As discussed in Chapter 3, the pedagogical choices of the teacher play a very important role in helping children write in English and a teacher's responses to children's writing are situated in power relations established in the classroom (Chong, 2002).

As outlined in Chapter 4, two primary school teacher participants who possessed Thai teaching qualifications, were located accessibly for the researcher, and who were willing to engage in the research, were chosen as participants in this research. Findings pertaining to the observed social interactions in the classroom of the first participant, Sopin (Grade 5, 6), and the second, Lina (Grade 4), are presented in this chapter.

The results from the data analysis and discussion of the findings address the research question, ***"How is power implicated in EFL writing pedagogies in Thai primary classrooms?"*** The analysis is presented in relation to pedagogies and power relations in order to answer the research question. It begins by providing details of the data analysis and findings, obtained through classroom observation, field notes, interviews, video recordings of classroom activities, and student writing samples. The reporting of this data is also contextualised in relation to school-based and national curriculum documents. Finally, this chapter presents the findings from two teacher participants, analysed in relation to Carspecken's (1996) techniques for analysing power in ethnographic research, and drawing on Foucault's (1977; 1982; 1991; 1995) theorisations of disciplinary power, pastoral power, bio-power and governmentality. In addition, charm and coercive power will be analysed following Carspecken's typology of interactive power (1996). Previously in Chapter 3, subsection 3.5, it was outlined that the connections between Carspecken's theory of power and Foucault's theory of power would assist in the analysis of teacher-student interactions in terms of overlapping similarities of power exercised, such as coercive power and resistance of power.

Significantly, in order to analyse the various sources of data and discuss the research findings, the researcher used several concepts central to Foucault's work (*Foucault, Essential Works of Foucault*, 1954-1984) that provide a powerful set of tools for the analysis of current teaching practice in this study, because as Foucault states (1977) power constitutes discourse, knowledge, society and subject. Thus, Foucault's analysis of power relations was applied to explore "the functioning of power in the pedagogical activities of teachers and students' interactions" (Gore, 1995, p. 98). Moreover, in the Thai context, ESL and EFL pedagogies are examined to explain the findings that relate specifically to power when considering these practices. Examples of pedagogies for English include vocabulary scaffolding and writing activities, and grammar and sentence structure exercises. The next section presents the data analysis and findings according to the themes of power and pedagogy that were investigated in this research.

5.1 POWER RELATIONS BASED ON FOUCAULT'S NOTIONS OF POWER AND PEDAGOGY

Briefly, Foucault (cited in Howley & Hartnett, 1992) suggests two paradigms for defining the terms of "power relations within major institutions. The first is the paradigm of disciplines, and the second is the paradigm of pastorate" (p. 271). Both characterise "power relations in institutions of higher education, though the paradigm of the pastorate" (Howley & Hartnett, 1992, p. 271), which is the most applicable to analyse power relations in this research on EFL writing classrooms in Thailand, because teacher-centred and learner-centred approaches are used. Applying these principles in this research demonstrate that many forms of power can be observed at work at the primary school level. The researcher describes the analysis of data sets, based on understandings of Foucault's notions of disciplinary power, and its intersection with the pedagogical decisions of the teacher. It is important to

investigate the relations between pedagogies and power, and how power is exercised through different forms of teaching instruction. Concepts of power, such as bio-power (Foucault, 2000), pastoral power (Foucault, 1982), normalisation (Foucault, 1977), and surveillance (Foucault, 1977; 1982), which are inherent in many institutional contexts, are also used for recognising the relationships that exist between teachers and students in education.

In examining Sopin's English language classes, the researcher observed that she followed an approach used in Thai classrooms called the 3Ps: Presentation, Practice, and Production (Nunan, 1992; Richards, 2002). However, Sopin enacted several strategies to help promote writing processes with her students by focusing on the English curriculum content areas of spelling, vocabulary, and grammatical structures. Sopin also encouraged students to communicate in English whilst talking to the teacher and their classmates, and ensured that they achieved their writing tasks by circulating among the students to assist them. However, according to the curriculum, most importantly, the skills focus that teachers must emphasise are listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. Consequently, Sopin wished to improve teaching strategies for communicative skills. From the classroom observations, it can be said that teaching writing was just a small part of the four communicative skills taught.

Richards and Rodgers (2001) note that the communicative approach is based on the foundation of the learner-centred teaching approach. A learner-centred approach as stated in the 2008 National Curriculum requires that Thai teachers of English implement this approach. In a learner-centred approach, writing is considered as a means to communicate, rather than the didactic practising of grammatical knowledge. Raimes (1983 as cited in Dhanarattigannon, 2008) stated

that this approach emphasises the meaningful purpose of writing and the audience. Further, Dhanarattigannon (2008) asserts that teachers in communicative classrooms do not focus on error correction. Rather, they give useful feedback to help the students rewrite. Teachers' roles in a learner-centred approach are sometimes characterised as catering to individual students' needs, interests and abilities, rather than dictating all dimensions of the curriculum (Nunan, 2006; Richards, 2005; Savignon, 2005; Spada, 2007).

The Basic Education Core Curriculum 2008 states that teachers should implement a learner-centred approach. However, observations of Lina's classes demonstrated that in her teaching process, she supported, supervised, and gave her students advice. She applied both the teacher-centred and the learner-centred approaches in a way that benefitted students' learning. An example of learner-centred teaching is that Lina instructed the students to write from short stories that they read gradually. They were motivated to practise writing independently based on topics of interest to them, but this strategy consumed much time. Lina stated, "We had only 2 hours per week for the writing in English". At the same time, Lina always explained grammar and sentence structure didactically at the beginning of the lessons, and had the students drill grammar exercises, which constitutes a teacher-centred approach. Learner-centred approaches, such as games and songs, emphasising teamwork, motivate the students to learn English in a lively atmosphere so they can work together quickly. Lina used teaching materials, such as work sheets, work books, notebooks and word cards to help her students understand and use the words in the structure correctly. To teach English vocabulary, based on a learner-centred approach, teachers could introduce several activities such as matching word-picture games, a bingo game, and puzzles. Lina usually reviewed and gave the

students many examples of word usage, so most could improve their writing. Thus, student and teacher-centred approaches were used in concert.

Space, power and pedagogy

Foucault's (1980) ideas of space, applied as the social space of classrooms and schools, are used to discuss the findings here. To analyse relationships of power, it is important to take into account of how space contributes to power and how it becomes relevant to teacher and student interactions in the EFL context, in terms of the relations between pedagogical practices, space and power concepts. As Foucault (1995, p. 147) states "…the educational space functions like a learning machine, but also as a machine for supervising, hierarchising, rewarding". Thus, space becomes interactive and relevant to subjects impacted by power since space enables teachers and students to use some sorts of power over others. Piro (2008) noted that Foucault viewed architecture as an operation of power control and domination. Thus, schools are the space where power circulates and is maintained. Drawing on Foucault, the teaching and learning space for these two teachers became the means to discipline students.

In other words, education and schooling systems worldwide operate in ways which are structurally similar, and operate using hierarchical forms of power to reward social actors across all levels of the system. This involves surveillance of the social activities and outcomes of schools. Here in Thai EFL classrooms, the pedagogical practices of teachers and teacher-student interactions are analysed in terms of power relations. The power in action inheres in the relations between the individual and the society, especially its institutions, which can be observed (Balan, 2010). Thus it can be said that exercise of power, which is exhibited in classrooms, can be observed in the social interactions between teachers and students.

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 3, subsection 3.2 ‘Panopticon: Space and Power’, space here is defined as a classroom where teaching and learning activities are carried out. Therefore, a number of students, school buildings, or areas outside the classroom are excluded from this discussion. The social space of Thai schooling and particular pedagogies in the EFL classroom constructs writing, teachers, and students in certain ways that demonstrate power at work in the regulation of the social space.

According to the observations, the influence of buildings and particularly classrooms or teaching spaces on student learning, reflected and supported a teacher-centred approach to interaction and social forms of learning, as opposed to a learner-centred approach to learning and teaching English language. As detailed in Chapter 3 subsection ‘Panopticon: Space and Power’, Sopin and Lina observed all students in their classes clearly because the students were seated in rows of desks facing the blackboard. Rows of desks allowed space between teachers and the students. Amongst the students, there was surveillance, principally due to the seating arrangement through desks that were joined together. The students could observe each other while studying, and on the other hand, self-surveillance was established when individual students monitored themselves (Gallagher, 2011).

Analysing space, power and pedagogy draws a relationship between the motivation of students to learn English language, and their learning behaviours. Lina’s and Sopin’s classrooms were equipped with ceiling fans, chairs, desks, teacher’s desk, and lights. Their classes were arranged depending on the activities. For example, rows of students’ desks faced the blackboard; the students were seated in their place listening to the teacher and reading the textbooks. This suggests clearly that the teacher-directed approach determined how space was constructed and used.

The classroom space dictated a kind of disciplinary power and enabled the teacher to circulate in the classroom, visiting each student to observe their learning behaviour, while they were writing, and doing written exercises. For Foucault (1977), the relationality of space allows the objects, the students that are present within the space, and the interrelations between them, to dictate how discipline or pedagogy operates. In the classrooms of Sopin and Lina, space became relational because it enabled both teaching approaches, such as a teacher-centred approach to be carried out, and the exercise of disciplinary power, to be exhibited.

During group activities, the students were seated with their desks joined together, for example, when they were writing short stories, using given words and presenting to the class. This illustrates that space was reduced between individual students. The use of space in different ways within the classroom illustrates how power operates between the teacher and the class and amongst the students. The arrangement of desks and space enabled disciplinary power at times and to pastoral power at other times. In the Thai EFL context, the teachers not only looked after all students – 'concerning the population', but also looked after each student – 'concerning the individuals' within space (Foucault, 1982, pp. 333-335). As Foucault notes, pastoral power is an individualisation of power where governance operates through the intimate understanding of the subject. Through seating arrangements, the teachers were able to order space to affect a physical control by using surveillance, and an overall visibility of students ensured that each individual student was accounted for within the operations of power.

Figure 5.1. Lina's class.

In Lina's class as seen in Figure 5.1, the table was at the side of the classroom with a PC set on the left of her desk. The students' seating was joined together facing the blackboard. Lina always stood in front of the class and sometimes walked around while teaching. This space between each row of students' desks enabled her to observe and record her students' learning behaviour. During classroom observations, the researcher sat at the back of the class close to the back door and sometimes walked around to visit each group. The spatial set up indicated disciplinary power, for example, hierarchical observation when the teacher scanned the room, and normalising judgement through recording each student's performance.

Moreover, reward power (see section 5.1.1.4 'Reward power and pedagogy') was exhibited during teaching and learning procedures. Since Lina taught Grade 4 students, who are the first level of upper primary schooling, she generally started her lessons with games, songs, and quizzes. The seating arrangement could be changed depending on classroom activities. Sometimes Lina assigned group work tasks, so she asked the students to be seated in a group of five to six students. Even though the students sat in groups, they could perform or volunteer in activities at their seats and in front of the classroom. Lina could walk closer to the students to compliment them when they gave correct answers. Based on the classroom observations, when Lina

taught, she was active, energetic, and gentle. She talked with her students in a friendly and warm manner. The students were curious and excited to do several activities. They were cooperative to engage in the assigned writing tasks. The exercise of reward power here is related to the space of individuals in relation to one another, because Lina reduced the space between her and the students, which also reduced the pressure acts (Foucault, 1977). Thus, the students were comfortable, relaxed, and confident to participate in EFL classroom activities.

Carspecken (1996) suggests that social interaction is mediated by power relations. This could be applied in the Thai EFL classroom where teacher's practices of language teaching occurred. At the back of the classroom was a space for students to sit while they were doing writing activities, which required a large area for doing group work. However, some groups of students preferred to carry out group work at their desks. As a result, space enabled self-surveillance because students were facing one another while doing the same writing tasks. This demonstrated the importance of the space that supports the exercise of power relations between students and students.

In terms of coercive power, the area at the back of the classroom was a space for students who misbehaved, by distracting their peers while studying, or chatting to one another while the teacher was teaching. This area was also for students who needed to concentrate more on their learning. These students were excluded to the area at the back of the classroom. Coercive power was clearly seen through the interactions between the teacher and the students when Lina told two quarrelling boys to stop, otherwise they would be sent out of the classroom (see 5.1.1.5 'Coercive power and pedagogy'). Being sent outside of the classroom space excluded the learners from the privilege of the interactions inside the material walls of the classroom.

On the other hand, space could be viewed through the spatial distance of the teacher's position in relation to the students' seating in the classroom interactions. In other words, space could represent where the interactions take place, such as in the classroom where teachers were involved in EFL pedagogies, and students were involved in speaking, English conversation, activities with peer-to-peer interactions, writing groups, and so on. Examples can be seen from Sopin's writing class below.

Figure 5.2. Sopin's class.

Figure 5.2 shows how Sopin's EFL classroom was arranged. A teacher's table was at the front of the classroom. Sopin liked to stand in front of the class while teaching. It can be seen from Figure 5.2 that Sopin reduced space from far to near. Sopin chose three students to engage in vocabulary practice in front of the classroom. They were required to form a simple sentence using given words. Sopin came closer to one of the boys and put her hands on his shoulder and said, "That's correct. Good job". Another example is that while the students were busy writing, or doing assigned tasks, she occasionally moved around each group of the students to assist them. In the first example, reward power is notable when Sopin gave a positive reinforcement to the specific student when he performed a suitable behaviour.

On the other hand, pastoral power was exercised between Sopin and her students when she observed and took care of them while they were learning English

language. Sopin wanted the students to depend on themselves and classmates when they wrote; however, she found that the students needed her suggestions. In figure 5.2, the students were seated in groups and there were spaces between each group so that the teacher could walk around. Disciplinary practices, such as hierarchical observation, were exercised through the teacher's movement or circulation through the classroom space. As teachers moved around the class, watching the students doing their work, the teachers observed the students' learning behaviours and then recorded them. In this way, the teachers knew which students performed their study, and which ones did not (Foucault, 1977).

The teachers' and the students' subjectivities seemed to be "embedded within the physical structure and relationships that constitute the school institution" (Foucault, 1977 as cited in Maynard, 2008, p. 388). In the EFL classrooms, particular power relations were exercised, for instance, its regulations, rules and routines, ways of being and behaving. It could be assumed that within a 'space', the teachers were provided with the opportunity to make changes to their pedagogical practice, from teacher-centred approaches to learning English to learner-centred approaches. This can be seen from the examples in the field note excerpted below.

Field note excerpt

[50] Lina stood at the front of the classroom and observed the students noting down the new words on their notebooks.

[51] Aem stood up at her desk when Lina called out her name.

[52] Anda chose 3 adjectives to write comparative and superlative sentences by himself. Anda showed Sopin his piece of work in the portfolio. Sopin said, "Ok, Good! Anda" and patted his shoulder gently.

In observations, the researcher found that classroom management tended to enable English learning activities, and to favour both teacher-centred and learner-centred approaches. Lina could observe her students while they were learning (line number 50). The walls of the classroom displayed many posters and word cards with pictures on the notice board. Students were learning English language in a rectangular room with 30 seats facing the front, where the teacher stood and maintained power over the students. Lina mentioned that she could create groups within the space, and could rearrange the seats in favour of activities, such as call for a student volunteer (line number 51). Hence, the relation between space and pedagogy is revealed here in terms of the power of space which influenced teaching approaches. Line number 52 shows a learner-centred approach in the way that Anda chose 3 adjectives to write comparative and superlative sentences by himself. He also created pictures to describe the comparison of adjectives and put his work in his portfolio.

In summary, by regulating the organisation of space, discipline is a mechanism of power which regulates people's activity (drills, posture, and movement) and behaviour of individuals in the social body. In Foucault's view of space (1977), the Panopticon enables the organising techniques of the exercise of disciplinary power. In schools, specifically in the classroom where students are monitored, they are aware of their learning behaviours, together with being aware of being watched by teachers. This is an example of the hierarchical observation technique of disciplinary power. Moreover, it appears that reward power and coercive power were the forms of power relations that offered a sense of security in the class for those students who were studying attentively and who counted on the teacher to discipline those who were disobedient or misbehaved. Hence, in the EFL classroom, exercise of

disciplinary power was exhibited in accordance with a type of location of bodies in space when teaching procedures were carried out – distribution of students and teachers in relation to one another. Lesson events, such as the teacher writing notes on the board, which the students are to copy in their books (Gore, 1995), showed evidence of the circulation of power relations between the teacher and students in the classroom. In the context of the EFL classroom, it could be assumed that space not only enables power to be exercised but also enables pedagogy to be practised.

5.1.1 Exercises of disciplinary power and pedagogies

Focusing on the conceptualisation of Foucault's notions of power, this section outlines the key findings from the interview transcriptions, classroom observation field notes, video recording data and archival documents, such as the curriculum and students' writing samples, in relation to disciplinary power. In this section, five categories of power describe the power relations that were active in the relationship between the two teacher participants and their students in the classroom throughout the learning-teaching activities. This relation also concerns power and knowledge. It is through power relations that techniques through which knowledge can be collected. Mechanisms for observation and control, behaviours, modes of action, cultural relations, and even identities are produced – they are not the result of power's repressive tendencies (Mills, 2003, p. 36; O'Farrell, 2005, pp.100-101).

Investigating the practice of pedagogies which Sopin and Lina applied in classrooms, the researcher took field notes and observed what had been done in their classrooms. Moreover, the researcher noticed how power relations were played out inside the classroom and evidence is provided from this analysis to gain deeper understanding of student-teacher interactions, actions, classroom techniques or

teaching strategies in Thai English writing classrooms. The next section describes exercises of disciplinary power.

5.1.1.1 Hierarchical observation and pedagogy

As detailed in Chapter 3, hierarchical observation is a "means of observation" (Foucault, 1977, p. 170) that encourages people to act in certain ways by virtue of the fact that they are being observed (Ball, 2008). In Foucault's account, the process of observation and visibility is important. Foucault proposes that educational institutions operate a system of hierarchical observation, or surveillance, that serves to control the participants' attitudes and behaviours.

The teacher-centred approach was typical in the observed school. The teachers organised, supervised and observed the classes closely. These activities were chosen to best enable the teachers to manage the teaching processes, and importantly, to control the students' learning behaviours. Hierarchical observation occurred through the teacher's work (e.g. regulating, monitoring and recording) in order to produce set outcomes for learners in Thai EFL classes. The impact of this form of control influences the individual agency of every teacher's work in school. According to the field note journals, every day the students carried out their tasks and the teachers observed their actions, which were their responsibility. The teachers were in front of the classrooms, getting all the students to pay attention to them. The teachers called each of the students by name. If any student did not appear, they asked 'Why?', 'What happened to Manit?'(names are pseudonyms.), for example. In this way, the teachers would find out easily if some students were sick, or why a student was absent from school. The students answered to their name and showed themselves when asked by saying, 'Yes', or 'Present', and raised their hand.

In the Thai context, surveillance is everywhere and at all times; it is both an external and an internal technology of discipline. Foucault (1991, p. 176) said that the power relations of surveillance in social interactions, "defined and regulated, are inscribed at the heart of the practice of teaching, not as an additional or adjacent part, but as a mechanism that is inherent to it and which increases its efficiency" (cited in Wright, 2000). Similarly, derived from Foucault, Gore (2006, p. 169) defines surveillance as "supervising, closely observing, watching, threatening to watch, and avoiding being watched" in order to identify the micro-level techniques of power enacted in her research sites.

The researcher observed that the teachers crosschecked students' names one-by-one, a practice that is necessary to show accountability aligned to the Thai national curriculum, which requires 80 per cent attendance at school for each student (OBEC, 2008, p. 16). Everything that might be observed during the roll call, such as illnesses, personal errands, and other matters that prevented some students from going to school, were noted down and transmitted to the principal of the school. A copy of this document would later enable the principal of the school to complete the school report at the end of the school year. This is a form of disciplinary power operating at the level of the school and state (government).

As demonstrated in sections 4.3.2 and 4.3.3, the classroom arrangement allowed the teachers to observe each student while they were learning, doing activities, and communicating in the classroom. According to Foucault (1977), "the school building was to be a mechanism for training" (p. 172). The classroom arrangement is analysed because classrooms are like 'cells' in a prison, and the students were in the classroom showing their appearance in order to be monitored while studying. With rows of desks facing the front, the teacher was situated much

like the prison security guard is positioned in the Panopticon, to observe all students, and also being watched herself. The arrangement created a mode of visibility through the gaze of the teacher and the students on each other that then leads to self-surveillance. As Foucault argues, the 'gaze' of surveillance is not exercised on us by others, but is also a way of watching our own behaviours. Consequently, we become the objects of our own gaze, monitoring our bodies, actions and feelings (Cools, 2001). "The gaze is alert everywhere" (Foucault, 1975, p. 195).

Similarly, from interview transcripts, another important point of evidence addressed Foucault's notion of hierarchical observation, as detailed further. According to the data, it was evident that the teachers observed their classes during teaching and learning processes. They were asked in the teacher interview, question 10, "What is the writing class like? How can you control the students' writing work in the class?"

Sopin's and Lina's answers (see their answers in 5.1.1.2) revealed how they set up the activity and directed the class. In Lina's class, she observed the students' performances in group work, and then assigned some capable students to be leaders of the group. This helped the students to work in groups with confidence and to complete the tasks successfully, with power distributed among the students. In contrast, Sopin interacted with her students by asking and answering questions about their writing tasks, which helped the students as guidance, but which emphasised the teacher's power and control over students.

In the case of Lina, hierarchical observation operated through her constant vigilance to check the work students performed, and she normalised the students' behaviour through setting standards of achievement. The normalisation was achieved through certain 'bright' students being appointed as leaders, which set a higher level

of achievement for all students. There were, therefore, tiers of hierarchical observation, with the students observing each other, the 'bright' students observing the other students, the teacher observing both the bright students and other students. This ensured to all involved that appropriate learning was taking place.

In the case of Sopin, she interacted with her students when they were doing the assigned tasks. In observations, teaching methods could be sometimes teacher-centred, and at other times, learner-centred. This resulted from the teaching methods Sopin found suitable to apply in each of her classes. Sopin explained that she planned her English lessons to incorporate various activities based on a learner-centred approach, such as using guessing games to teach vocabulary. However, teacher-directed activities, such as explaining grammar rules by writing on the blackboard and having the students write and note down on their notebook, were also often seen in her classes.

In examining Lina's and Sopin's EFL classrooms, it was noted that the students were not confident to write and complete the activities. Some students tried to write in English and achieved their tasks and felt more confident, but some did not. The students were not aware of vocabulary and grammar when presented with materials such as word cards, pictures, games and songs to help them with their writing, as shown in the lesson warm-up stage. It became clear that individual activities of writing were less successful, as students were not yet independent learners at this stage in their language learning. As McDonough (2004), who investigated learner-learner interaction during pair and small group activities in a Thai EFL context, reports, "pair and small group activities provide students with more time to speak English language than teacher-fronted activities, promote learner

autonomy and self-directed learning, and give teachers opportunities to work with individual students" (p. 208).

It is notable that education in Thailand has a strong tradition of teacher-centred instruction (Mackenzie, 2002), and it is very important that students show their respect to teachers in the classroom (Hallinger & Pornkasem, 2000; Servatamorn 1997). In Thai culture, students must be aware of being impolite or speaking in an inappropriate manner to teachers, as students are taught to respect and obey authorities, especially teachers. Thus, the relationship between teachers and students implies that students are required to obey and pay high respect to their teachers. The students were very careful about how they asked questions, and only a few students dared to ask questions or negotiate with the teachers. Instead, they talked with each other in pairs and in groups. This is a demonstration of disciplinary power at work in the Thai EFL classroom.

Interestingly, in Sopin's class, question-answer activity in this writing class occurred (see also 5.1.3). Sopin used this activity in the warm-up stage of lessons, the presentation stage, and the production stage. She also used this form of questioning as a writing task in the form of worksheets. Question-answer activities mentioned here refer to the students answering closed-ended questions about grammar, sentence structure, and word spelling that required the right answer during their writing tasks, rather than writing whole texts with greater freedom of writing structure. In terms of power relations, Sopin's practices of this technique acknowledged her students' understanding of the lessons. When Sopin asked the questions orally, she also observed all the students or individuals. Similarly, when the students asked and answered the questions with peers, the teacher could observe their learning performance.

In sum, hierarchical power was clearly exercised through surveillance in the Thai EFL classes; for instance, teachers could observe the students while they were performing activities individually, in pairs, and in groups. Within a teacher-centred classroom, teachers can test whether the pedagogies applied in their classes are successful or not. This can be done by observing students' behaviours, their performance, and their tasks. Moreover, by gazing and asking the students to check their comprehension of concepts, and attention to the lessons, and their cooperative behaviour during group work, the teachers are acknowledging students' success in learning English language and their own pedagogical utilisation in the EFL classroom.

5.1.1.2 Normalisation and pedagogy

In Chapter 3, it was explained that Foucault (1979) calls a set of values and behaviours appropriate or "normal" in a social site as "normalisation". Normalisation operates through both individual self-discipline and group control (Anderson & Grinberg, 1998). It describes, for example, the disciplining of bodies in army training, which can be adapted to understanding the way that schooling trains or improves individual student "bodies" in order to succeed in learning. Anderson and Grinberg (1998) further suggest that these disciplinary practices allow teachers to leave the classroom assured that students will keep working on their tasks in the absence of the physical presence of authority.

In the researcher's observation, the teachers generally spoke using English, but switched to Thai for emphasis and to exert more influence over the students. This is an example of power exercised through language choice or code switching between two languages – Thai and English – to strengthen the normative power of the teacher

to regulate the students' behaviour. Field note examples below illustrate the exercise of normalisation.

Field note excerpt

[8] [TA writes the objectives of the lesson on a blackboard and reads aloud.]
[9] TA: Today we're going to learn adjectives and comparison. Open your notebooks and write down. [Teacher writes on a blackboard.]
[10] SS: Yes. [open their notebooks and write down]
[11] [TA explains the lesson orally to students, and gives examples.]
[12] TA: Do you understand how to make a comparison?
[13] Please raise your hand if you don't understand. [Switch to Thai asking the same question.]
[14] [Teacher looks around the classroom in case any students need more help.]
[15] TB: All right. I need five volunteers to come in front of the classroom.
[16] TB: Mata, look at the pictures you've got and write a sentence on the blackboard.
[17] [TB calls out student's name directly before asking the question.]
[18] [Teacher continues telling students to write sentences with picture cards on the blackboard.]
[19] [Teacher and students check and correct the sentences on the blackboard together.]
[20] [Class applauds students who write a sentence correctly.]
[21] TA: Complete the instructions on your worksheets. I'll give you 15 minutes. When you finish, submit it and get your scores.
[22] [SS engaged in writing task individually and then finished the writing task and waited for the teacher to check it.]

Based on the classroom observation field notes of Sopin's and Lina's classes, it was evident that the teachers set up the instructions at all times as they began the lessons. For instance, line numbers 8, 9, 10, and 21 show the way to control the "body" – students must have self-discipline to follow the rules and regulation of the

class or the lesson, then they kept practising by themselves, sometimes with the teacher's assistance. It was evident that norms were established in the practice of students through the teachers' practice of pedagogies. The students saw, understood, and learned a repetitive action in the classroom every day, so they were trained to behave; as noted in Bliss (2006), a norm is "a regular pattern of conduct observed by individuals in response to a regulation". This suggests that the students produce particular behaviours through a set of classroom regulations, which later become the characteristics of norms. According to Foucault, disciplinary power creates individuals who follow the expectations of a body of knowledge and norms of that society, in which those individuals are embedded (Piro, 2008).

Further, according to Carspecken (1996), when a subordinate consents to the higher social position of a superordinate because of cultural norms, it denotes normative power. This means the teacher establishes a relation of power over her students by claiming her normative rights as a teacher. Examples include line numbers 12 and 13, which achieve in terms of norms that Sopin set up the pattern to check the students' understanding of the lessons. Students raised up their hands if they wanted to ask a question (13). In line numbers 16, 17, and 18, Lina had normative power over her students by choosing a particular student to look at the picture and write a sentence on the blackboard. The selected students followed her teaching instructions without hesitation. The norm referred to associates power with status alone and does not foreground any reasons, such as "students should obey teachers". As a result, they understood the lessons and performed the writing tasks correctly (line numbers 19 and 22). Their writing skills then were improved, which could be seen from analysing the students' work samples.

In this respect, it can be assumed that there is the connection between Carspecken's (1996) theory of normative power and Foucault's (1977) theory of power in terms of the contrastive exercise of teachers' normative power, as Lina and Sopin used when they stood with an authoritative manner at the front of the classroom, a manner associated with their social status (Carspecken, 1996). Sopin claimed students' attention with 'All right' in line no. 15. Likewise, Lina also used normative claims during class by walking around continually among students to provide directions for reading and writing activities, explain some grammar in the handouts, and even checking students' pieces of work (line numbers 11 and 14). It was evident that Sopin and Lina made their students consent to their normative claims in teacher-student interactions. The students complied with their authority, or in other words, they held this type of power over the classes. This is understandable because in accordance with Thai social and cultural norms, students are expected to obey their teachers.

In contrast, seen through Foucault's perspective, schools create a regime of power by defining norms (1977). It was noted that the students individually did activities of writing as they were told what to do (lines 9 and 10) and then became familiar with the classroom regulations (lines 21 and 22). Since they understood and practised these patterns of learning English with teacher Lina and Sopin repeatedly, they were regulated by norms.

Figure 5.3. Sopin's class.

Figure 5.3 shows that students tried to finish the writing task in groups. They demonstrated multiple normalised behaviours in this setting. These behaviours included doing a task and following the teacher's instruction, and reminding their peers of the teacher's instructions of the exercises. The students did not wait for the teacher to appear to their group to re-explain or guide them because they were regulated in their behaviours by the set of the rules. These norms could not be seen at the first period; rather, these normalised behaviours gradually occurred as a consequence of practice, as evidenced by the following teacher interview transcript. As noted by Bliss (2006), instances of classification and exclusion were almost always followed by immediate normalising behaviour on the part of peers. Students established and re-established norms of behaviour and these norms were highly dependent upon social classification.

Likewise, the data interpreted from the interviews demonstrates the power relations upon the 'bodies' of teachers and students. Sopin's and Lina's answers to Question 10, "What is the writing class like? How can you control the students' writing work in the class?", are as follows.

Sopin's answer was:

In the classroom, they [students] were assigned to complete individual works. Sometimes, the students did not answer my questions and did not have any feedback. It was sometimes teacher-centred, not always student-centred. I would counsel, advise and comment on their work so that they could correct their work.

Similarly, Lina replied:

It was like a general class. For individual work, the students who were good at English could write English by themselves and they could help the others. For the group work, I assign the students who were good at English to be leader in order to support the others in the group. Each one has their own duty and finally, their decided their own level of participation. There were also games and songs, emphasising on teamwork, so they can work together quickly.

From their answers, it is clearly seen how both teachers set up, direct, and control the class by rules or assessment. 'Normalisation' occurred in the relations between teachers and their students where students were controlled by, and normalised through, a set of rules and regulations given to them while they were doing writing tasks. Normalisation is one of the techniques of discipline that is exerted throughout institutions (Foucault, (1979). As in Gore's study (1995), "invoking, requiring, setting or conforming to a standard, defining the normal" (p. 171) were defined as techniques of normalisation, which clearly operated amongst teachers and students.

Lina's answer above demonstrates the exercise of normalisation. Firstly, Lina measured each student and placed them in a hierarchical system, or in other words, measured differences between individuals. Secondly, she required that each group of students must have a 'bright' student as a leader. Lina also set several team work activities for the students. With this technique of normalisation, students are exposed

to the standards of norms. They will perform accepted and approved behaviours such as continuing writing without the teacher watching them, or looking up the meaning of the unknown words in the dictionary before asking their teachers.

As quoted in Carspecken (1996), "Students should obey teachers", that is, what the teacher's normative rights are. However, student-to-student normalisation was observed to confirm that students articulated norms of good conduct, and further, they also recognised which behaviours were acceptable, and which were not. In conclusion, Sopin and Lina, when constructing writing activities and implementing teaching strategies to teach students English writing, established the norms of conduct between teacher and students, as well as normalised patterns of behaviours.

5.1.1.3 Examination and pedagogy

As first theorised in Chapter 3, the concept of examination is the combination of normalising judgement and hierarchical observation (Foucault, 1991, p.184). Foucault (1991) explains that any activities that permit people to be subject to hierarchical observation of power and to a normalising judgement, are considered examinations of disciplinary power (p. 184 cited in Ball, 2008). Based on the 2008 Basic National Education Curriculum, it is compulsory for pupils' assessment at the primary level to be based on (a) attendance record (no less than 80 per cent of the total learning time requirement); and (b) all indicators and the criteria prescribed by the educational institutions (OBEC, 2008, p.18).

While the curriculum requires students to learn English for 80 hours each semester, there are only two hours of lessons per week. This means the students do not have sufficient time to learn and consolidate English. However, Sopin's and Lina's pedagogical practice confirms that they implemented the objectives set out in

the curriculum. Both Sopin and Lina followed the curriculum to construct the English lesson plans for grades 4, 5 and 6 students.

In the school setting, teachers observe students' behaviours through individual or group activities, assignments, quizzes, or tests. By doing this, the teacher can accumulate information which will be later processed as a result of education management of the school. Examination information about students is reported to the Ministry of Education, which develops a National Curriculum to be implemented all over the country. As Foucault (1977, p. 187) states:

> The examination in the school was a constant exchanger of knowledge; it guaranteed the movement of knowledge from the teacher to the pupil, but it extracted from the pupil a knowledge destined and reserved for the teacher. The school became the place of elaboration for pedagogy.

In other words, schools become not only the place for the production and dissemination of knowledge (Brookfield, 2001), but also a place for teaching operation.

When asked question 18, 'What approaches of teaching writing do you often apply, and why?', Sopin's answer was:

> *Writing with the structure that I provided, the students could understand and use the words in the structure with other words instead. This was because of repeatedly practising, and giving them examples in order to practise following the structure continually.*

Sopin's response implies that teachers can develop any language methods according to their interpretation of the English curriculum. She stated that she is familiar with communicative teaching approaches, since she learned this method on a teacher training course organised by the British Council. Nevertheless, rote-teaching,

textbook-based teaching and learning were still applied in her classes, since the students were not proficient in English. When teaching writing, Sopin often began by having students remember, spell, and understand the meanings of words. Students then studied various ways of using words in sentences through examples given by teachers, or in the textbook. They repeatedly practised speaking and writing exercises. It can be seen that Sopin emphasised the building of knowledge of writing skills from words to sentences, and had students 'drill and practise' – a pedagogy of control and reproduction.

The drilling and practising of language found in observations from Sopin's classes are distinctive features of both the audiolingual method and the communicative approach (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983; Nunan, 2003; Richards, 2005). Drilling is a central technique and comes before communicative activities in audiolingual methods. On the other hand, the communicative approach emphasises communicative language. Drilling may occur, but marginally.

In the teacher interview transcript, Question 11, Sopin mentions that students' English proficiency was assessed and evaluated through writing tasks and tests. Sopin wanted her students to be examined almost every class for spelling, giving meanings of words, and reading aloud. Moreover, students were tested for their handwriting, which would not be marked in the score at the end of semester. In contrast, formal assessment in the classroom was conducted 4 times per semester. Instead, she encouraged her students to keep improving their writing skills and made English writing classes fun, enjoyable, and interesting. Consequently, not all of the students' writing work was given a score; rather, the scores of English tests were from multiple choice form, true or false, and writing a short paragraph. This observation can be interpreted in relation to the work of Foucault (1977), who

suggests that examination enables the teacher, while transmitting knowledge, to transform pupils to reproduce the field of knowledge (p. 186). Examination enables teachers to observe, analyse, classify, assess, report and utilise both knowledge of individual student, and maintain their operations of teaching in the EFL classroom. Further insight into examination can be theorised in relation to Sopin's responses to Question 11:

"How do you know that the class makes a progress in English writing skills? Do you exam them every class? If so, please give examples."

Sopin's answer was:

It could be identified from their works and their writing performance. I could learn that whether they were developing in their English writing skills or not. The students were not tested in every class. I would give them marks with their writing works, such as writing a mind map and spelling vocabularies correctly. The tests were multiple choices, true or false, and writing to describe pictures.

Students were required to work individually in some activities, though they were seated in groups of five to six. The students were introduced to writing composition by using the textbook, *Say Hello 5*. This textbook is divided into eight units, and this unit was about seasons. Sopin had her students look at the photo accompanying the text describing each season. Then she asked them questions about the photos in English (sometimes in Thai; see 5.1.1.2). This aimed to assess students' understanding. Next, students were asked to choose one season they liked, and then write at least five sentences about it. As a final step, the students handed in their writing work to the teacher. Sopin then gave scores to them and told them to keep improving their writing skills. This can be elaborated In terms of power, examination was exercised in the way that Sopin supervised her students when they wrote, justified their writing ability and ranked them by score. In an examination, the

individual student is looked at, written about and analysed by the teachers. Moreover, reward power, another aspect of disciplinary power, needs to be considered here. By marking scores of the students' writing work and verbally motivating them to write, Sopin had reward power over her students. The students were more encouraged to do the writing tasks "by the desire to be rewarded" (Foucault, 1977, p. 180).

In addition, the teaching and learning process involves many methods and approaches. Story writing could be one of several writing strategies to motivate students to write. Using this technique helps learners to share ideas and respect one another's differences while engaging in writing tasks (Nunan, 1995). For this level of Grade 5, Sopin introduced the students to basic story writing using pictures to create the story. Initially, students were taught to write a picture story by rearranging pre-constructed sentences to create a story. Therefore, students had a model of writing in the form of a picture story to serve as the basis of their own writing. An example of this strategy presented students participating in a group discussing family photos. The students wrote a passage to describe a family photo using 5-7 sentences. This technique encouraged students to speak in English in a small group, and then the groups were asked to have a volunteer to speak to the whole class. Journal writing or paragraph writing is a learner-centred strategy which is another technique used in the Whole Language Approach (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

According to the field notes of classroom observations, Sopin made this activity seem like a test to students because she would give a score range of 1-10 for each group presentation, and 1-10 for pieces of writing tasks. Student volunteers presented their piece of writing verbally to the entire class. Students found this activity interesting and somewhat challenging, so they tried to write and express their knowledge about vocabulary, word choices and grammar. It should be noted here

that during an informal talk, Sopin revealed to me that she did not give them a real 'score', instead, she just needed to persuade her students to work as a team and share their English knowledge (see 5.1.1.2). This way, the students learnt to regulate themselves to complete the activity by using the writing skills in which they have been previously trained.

Another piece of evidence of the relations between pedagogies implemented by Sopin and examination – an exercise of disciplinary power on teaching practice – can be seen from the conversation in video excerpt 4. It reveals that when students were asked to write and speak, they were brainstorming in the group and assigned each member a task in order to finish the activity on time. This demonstrated that Sopin managed group work and limited time to her students for writing activities. She urged them to regulate themselves to complete the assigned writing tasks. It was Sopin who controlled the activities by instructing them how to do the writing exercises, and she observed students while they were performing those writing tasks. Similarly, based on conceptualisations of Foucault's (1977) theory, observation is a method of controlling students, forcing them to study in order that students obtain knowledge and then achieve the goals of learning and teaching English based on the national curriculum.

Video Excerpt 4

S6.1: Who's presenting in front of the class? [Smiling]

S6.2: We need to hurry up.

S6.3: Not me. I'm writing sentences. [Keeps writing]

S6.1: I'm drawing. So it must be you S6.2. You're good at speaking.

S6.2: [Sigh] OK. Let me practise for a few minutes.

In sum, an account of disciplinary power, specifically, a type of power as 'examination', has been theorised in relation to the practice of teaching pedagogies throughout Sopin's classes. Similarly, examining power at the micro level of classroom discourse, Gore (1998) notes that any analysis must examine the shifting movements of power between the teacher and the students (cited in Buzzelli, 2001). Since this research aims to examine the relations between power and writing pedagogies, it is necessary to focus on the classroom interactions between the teachers and the students. In this respect, the shifting movements of power from the teacher to the students, such as pastoral power, are identified and analysed based on Foucault's notions of power so as to interpret the power relations. Foucault (1982) argues that exercise of power is "a way in which certain actions modify others" (p. 208), and is not the relationship between individuals, peers, or groups. This implies that relations of power circulate in the interactions and communication, such as gestures and language, amongst people. Therefore, analysing power relations must be done by examining teachers' practices of pedagogies and classroom interactions. Similarly, power operates at the most micro levels of social relations (O' Farrell, 2007).

Thus, Sopin and her students carried out teaching and learning activities, which were considered as evidence of relations of pedagogies and power as 'examination'. For instance, teaching vocabulary, spelling, grammar, or sentence structure with students repeatedly, encourages students' usage of English in writing – especially the context of this research. Sopin observed her students' performance of writing while they were doing individual or group tasks, making some notes on her lesson plans. She also assessed students' knowledge by giving quizzes, and by multiple choice tests. Thus, in Hoskin's interpretation of Foucault (1979), through examination the

teacher transforms in his students their knowledge of "a whole field of knowledge" (Foucault, 1977, p. 186), and it is open to the teacher to define that field in differing ways (p. 146).

In the Thai educational system, the teacher records student behaviours by observing and transcribing the results of the exams in her documents; this provides detailed information about the individuals examined and allows power systems to control them. Ultimately, this information is used to inform the principal of the school about students' absence from school, students' English proficiency, and regulated teaching methods. This demonstration of power as examination is central to the education management of the school, which reports to the Ministry of Education. The results give feedback about the quality and implementation of the National Curriculum, and also the academic quality of school and teaching capacity of teachers to the Ministry of Education.

5.1.1.4 Reward power and pedagogy

Examining examples from the teacher participants' classes, the researcher found that teacher participants had the ability to reward their students in many forms; for instance, "Well done, Ann", "Good job", and "You've got one point, Joe". These were usually employed to reward students' behaviour and their achievement in classroom tasks. This form of teachers' practice could be termed reward power, the exercise of regulation in Foucault's account. Carspecken (1996) states that charm is used to describe how a "subordinate acts out of loyalty to the superordinate because of the latter's personality" (p. 130). Carspecken (1996) points out in his example that the teacher obtains students' obedience through charm, such as 'They were so original!' and "...in a friendly and warm manner" (pp.129-131). Charm is considered a type of reward.

Field note excerpt

[23] S6.3: Teacher Sopin, Does healthy food mean good food?

[24] TA: Yes, you're right. Good!

[25] TA: What is the weather like in summer?

[26] S5.1: It is sunny.

[27] TA: Very good!

[28] S4.1: Um, teacher Lina. Is this correct? 'She go swimming last weekend.'

[29] TB: No, we don't use present tense of verb with the past activity. Think about it, please.

[30] S4.1: She went swimming last weekend.

[31] TB: Yes. She went swimming last weekend. Well done!

According to the data analysis detailed in Chapter 4, various forms coded as 'rewards', including scores, recognition, prizes (e.g. bars of chocolate, candies, pencils), and praise, were given to students by the teachers. In order to see whether reward power was exercised in the teachers' practice with students in the EFL classroom, the conversations that yielded the examples illustrated above were conducted in classes of Grade 4-6 students. It was seen that student S6.3 was more active and eager to participate in English language learning activities (line number 23), and was happy to receive her teacher's compliments (line number 24). The students were more interested in the lessons and willingly answered the questions (line numbers 26 and 27).

These relations between reward power (Carspecken, 1996; Foucault, 1977) and pedagogical strategies had an influence on EFL students' motivation and confidence in learning and using English language (line numbers 28, 29, 30, and 31). Student S4.1 recognised her mistake – using the wrong tense of the verb 'go', and then she

corrected herself after Lina's explanation. This student (S4.1) was more confident to use the correct verb. The notion of rewarding students' behaviour in the classroom concerned with language learning can result in good learning behaviour – that is, students can be redirected.

In terms of verbal approval, encouragement and praise can very often result in positive reinforcement and provide behaviour modification in the EFL classroom. Those verbal rewards consist of, "You've done a great job", "Very good!", and "Everybody, give him a big hand", for example. Students are rewarded through recognition, given a pleasant job assignment, or praised for their willingness to participate in classroom activities. Thus, reward power is exercised through the practice of the teachers, which is also associated with Foucault's account of disciplinary power. As Foucault (1977) points out, "the teacher must avoid, as far as possible, the use of punishment; on the contrary, he (the teacher) must endeavour to make rewards more frequent than penalties" (p. 180). The observed teacher used discipline and rewards to encourage students to behave in the desired ways.

According to the observation field notes, the researcher noticed that both teacher participants showed their acceptance and approval of students' answers and actions by nodding their heads. Carspecken (1996, p. 126) argues that power will be revealed when body posture suppresses or represses action or indicates an imposed subjective state of some kind, such as lowering the head, and making the body small and stooped. By using gestures to designate acceptance and respect, the students realise that the teacher approves their behaviours. Also, if the teacher or their classmates approve their behaviours, students will be more prepared to perform appropriate behaviours and actions for their class. In contrast, students are also aware that they will be less likely or carry out actions if the class does not approve their

behaviours. Apart from this analysis, charm could be defined as part of a teacher's personality, which affects the students' motivation to learn English. The researcher observed that the 4th graders respected and paid attention to Lina because she always smiled at them and made the class atmosphere active and fun. Charm is another sort of interactive power by which the teachers, being gentle and friendly, can obtain students' obedience (Carspecken, 1996).

In the EFL class, it is important to use reward power to maintain the social relationship between students' motivation in learning English language and the teachers' practice. This implicit relationship is important to ensure that students feel valued and competent. In its most healthy form, reward power is a positive reinforcement to gain the students' willingness to learn English language, and also enables the teachers to recognise students' efforts to learn English.

5.1.1.5 Coercive power and pedagogy

The data analysis from observation field notes indicates that each teacher engaged with their students by using coercive power. The exercise of this power assisted the teachers to control the classes by rules, including sanctions and acts of punishment. The following notable examples from both teachers' classes were analysed and discussed based on Foucault's account of disciplinary power (1977) and Carspecken's typology of interactive power relations (1996). Additionally, these examples reveal how teachers appeared to use coercive power not only for forbidding misbehaviour by the students, but also for increasing motivation to learn English.

Briefly elaborated, discipline is exercised to coercively train the body as subject (Foucault, 1977, pp. 130-131). Coercive power is exercised in order to 'trace the body', in other words, the students in schooling. Coercive power, as defined by

Carspecken (1996), is the power of the superordinate, which "forces obedience through the threat of a sanction" (p. 130). For example, a threatened action by a teacher is a form of coercive power, such as when Lina said, "If you don't listen to me, you will need to stand up for one hour". It is clearly seen that Lina used this form of power to prevent interruption while she was speaking. This practice induces students' fear of possible punishment or embarrassment; hence, students do not interrupt the teaching. In this study, the researcher investigated classroom interaction in order to demonstrate that this power existed in pedagogical interactions between the teachers and the students in a Thai EFL context, and coercive power was significant.

Field note excerpt

[32] TB: Don't talk in a class, Tana. [Lina called his name at a low volume.]

[33] TB: Stop it! [to two boys teasing each other]

[34] TB: If you don't pay attention to the study, go out of the classroom.

[35] [Two boys stopped playing immediately and sat quietly.]

[36] TA: SS, Quiet, please. [Students were still chatting.] **Ngiab! (Quiet)**

[37] [Sopin said, 'Quiet' with a normal speaking voice, but '**Ngiab**' with a loud volume.]

[38] TA: Ake and Pat, if you keep talking in my class while I'm teaching, I must punish you. [kind of punishment not elaborated]

[39] TB: Tanu, listen to me, PLEASE.

A number of interactions can be seen from this excerpt, demonstrating that the teachers used pedagogical strategies such as code-switching to manage the classroom learning atmosphere, together with maintaining discipline (line numbers 36 and 37). As Kang (2008) suggested, from a study of primary teachers in Korea, code-

switching is used to maintain teaching in English language classrooms in order to give instruction, to ensure classroom management, and as a form of discipline which occurred frequently. Similar to a study by Treethawewongkul (2011), teachers use L1 (Thai) in an EFL classroom to enhance students' understanding and motivation, and to maintain discipline.

For example, Sopin switched to Thai when students ignored her English instructions. For example, line number 36, Sopin said, "Quiet, please.", but students ignored her and were still chatting. So she then said "Ngiab!", which means "Silence!", or "Quiet!". However, the use of Thai (L1) can be viewed as having an influence on the students' behaviour, because the students paid attention to her instruction immediately. One can interpret that her reason was that she wanted to maintain discipline and to control the students' misbehaviour immediately. Thus, code-switching was used as a pedagogical strategy, to exercise coercive power between the teacher and her students.

Sopin asked students to complete an assigned writing task, and then to break out into groups and prepare presentations and answers. In fact, using a group work technique in the EFL classroom is effective in terms of learner-centred instruction, because it creates an active learning atmosphere and allows students to participate in activities. This cooperative learning increases students' motivation to learn English language. However, while preparing, brainstorming, and working, the students became louder and louder; therefore, Sopin needed a different strategy to maintain order in the classroom. For example, line numbers 36 and 37 illustrate that coercive power is exercised when the teacher wants to control the students' behaviour (Gore, 2006; Tananuraksakul, 2011).

Similarly, line numbers 32, 33, 34, and 35 from Lina's classroom reveal that coercive power was exercised when Lina showed that particular students' action was not appropriate and would not be accepted (see line numbers 32 and 33). The teacher forced obedience through the threat of a sanction, as can be seen from line numbers 34 and 38. This may be called coercive power, which occurs without the consent of the subordinate in the relationship (Carspecken, 1996, p. 130). As Carspecken (1996) explains, "The subordinate complies, not through consent to the teacher's status and rights, but in order to avoid an unpleasant sanction" (p. 130).

The students wanted to avoid being punished, so they stopped their behaviour (line number 34). Alternatively, at example line number 38, the students stopped chatting when the teacher sanctioned them by referring to a punishment. This is obviously the case (line number 39) when Tanu was reading a comic book, hiding it in the drawer of his desk. Lina noticed his action. She said the word "Please", with focused and sustained eye contact on him and her head was tilted forward. Lina also used an authoritative voice and exaggerated the word, "P-L-E-A-S-E" when she spoke. This is an exercise of coercive power; according to Carspecken's account (1996, p. 127), tone of voice and gestures will also provide clues to subjective states and holistic forms of meaning. Thus, here the use of "Please" is considered as a clue to the student that his manner was prohibited in the classroom. A soft voice with downcast eyes and few body movements will correspond to feelings of constraint and "emotional implosion" (Carspecken, 1996, p. 127). The teacher invokes this gesture to control the student's unacceptable manner.

The researcher observed that Lina used a low volume and a louder volume in a threat, which caused students to change their behaviour, since they did not want to get in to trouble with a record of their misbehaviour, and lose the attitude score (see

Table 5.1). Thus, the students tried to mind their manners, and did not interrupt the class. Lina patiently controlled her class and demonstrated that if any students played in class, which was considered the interruption of classroom interaction, they would be isolated outside the classroom, and would be recorded as behaving in a bad manner (line numbers 34, 35, and 38). The researcher observed that students became more attentive and listened to the instruction, and finally did not impede the teaching-learning process. From informal talks with the teacher, Lina and Sopin argued that (regardless of inappropriate use of verbal coercion, such as "Silence!" and "If you don't listen to me, you will lose one point"), it is necessary to use these words to control students' behaviours and to gain attention from the students. Both teachers said "the use of coercion is a common occurrence in the Thai classroom context, because most students have a negative attitude towards learning English".

Further, as shown in Table 5.1, it should be noted that in the Thai education system, class attendance or attitude recorded during a semester is 10 per cent or 10 points equivalent out of 100 points, and evaluation of student performance in English is reported to their parents at the end of each semester. Thus, this 10 per cent of attitude reflects the students' behaviour in the classroom.

Table 5.1

Evaluation of English subject Grade 4-6

Category	**Percentage %**
Formative test	15
Midterm exam	30
Summative test	15
Final exam	30
Class Attendance / Attitude	10
Total	100

In summary, in terms of coercive power and pedagogy, it appears that this form of power relations may offer a sense of security in the class for those students who are studying attentively, and who count on the teacher to discipline those who are disobedient or misbehave. The exercise of coercion, such as shame, punishment, and guilt, is intended to produce teacher influence over the students (Foucault, 1977). The exercise of coercive power was demonstrated in actions, such as teachers' gestures to students and verbal coercion such as, "Ake and Pat, if you keep talking in my class while I'm teaching, I must punish you." Thai EFL teachers exercise power saying "No," withholding privileges, and giving consequences or punishments to students.

In terms of links between Carspecken's theory of power and Foucault's, the significance of teachers' use of coercive power seems similar. For example, a teacher might say to a student who is bothering his peers too much, "Be quiet or I'll tell your parents" (sanction). Then, that student accepts the reprimand because he does not want his parents to be disappointed in him, or in other words, he wants to avoid the sanction. However, that student might reject the coercive claim to stop annoying his friends by keeping chatting (see 5.1.4 Resistance). The teacher must decide to apply other power, such as interactively established contracts and normative power. It is clearly seen that coercive power plays an important role in maintaining the teaching climate. Moreover, coercive punishment (Foucault, 1977), which teachers use, is concerned with discipline because adopting punishment within a context of coercive sanctions is meant to maintain the learning environment, atmosphere and students' accomplishment in learning English.

5.1.2 Pastoral power and pedagogy

Seen through a Foucauldian lens, power relations can be revealed in the actions between teacher participants and their classes. Foucault states that pastoral power is a "form of power of which the ultimate aim is to assure individual salvation in the next world" (Foucault, 1982, p. 783). In the Thai EFL classroom context, this power was exhibited through a set of teaching pedagogies, which aimed to develop students' knowledge of English. The teachers are in charge of the students' learning. In this manner, teachers observe, talk to the students, identify their needs and assist them, and also find out their interests. As Foucault (1978, p.127) states, "Pastoral power is a power of care".

In the following sections, the analysis of pastoral power and pedagogy begins with observations of Sopin's and Lina's classes, followed by interview data, and data from observing student group work.

Classroom observations

In the classroom observations, the researcher noted that Sopin and Lina introduced many activities to encourage students to participate actively, affording students the opportunity to exercise some power over their own learning. They used a variety of pleasurable activities, such as using puppets to obscure, rather than to emphasise, the power of teachers over students in English language learning. The researcher demonstrates in the analysis of classroom discourse how the exercise of power can produce knowledge of acceptable behaviours, and can function to marginalise some students (Foucault, 2000). Foucault (1982) states that power can be studied at the micro level of individuals and their interactions. In this context, it means power is exhibited in interactions between teachers and students, mediated by

pedagogies. Thus, the researcher used this concept to analyse and explain Sopin's and Lina's pedagogical practices for students to write.

Power implicated in Sopin's classes

In observing Sopin's practice, the English class was constructed from the *Say Hello 5* and *Say Hello 6* materials, which are commercially packaged English teaching resources used in Thai primary schools. However, Sopin was not constrained by the lesson materials, preferring to start her lessons with songs and games. These games were brief, implemented before the core of lesson content was presented. The remainder of the lessons were planned and implemented in a way that was closely aligned to the structure and sequence of language skills and content presented in the student book and workbook materials.

Sopin observed her classes and found that students were motivated and interested in English lessons whenever she started her class with games or songs. As such, Sopin used the games to introduce key vocabulary, to correct spelling and pronunciation, and to prepare the students for the writing tasks later in the lesson. In doing this, Sopin set up the steps of her teaching writing in relation to her observation. Foucault (1982) argues that a form of pastoral power consists of the set of techniques, rationalities and practices designed to govern or guide people's conducts in which "individuals can be integrated, under one condition: that this individuality would be shaped in a new form and submitted to a set of very specific patterns" (p. 783). This can be an example of pastoral power, which Sopin exhibited in terms of care to foster her students' learning. For example, in the field note excerpt below, the teacher used a sorting game involving categorising and labelling healthy and unhealthy foods using new English vocabulary to label the sorted food pictures.

Field note excerpt

[1] TA: Today I would like to start with [pause…waiting to see students' response] A game!

[2] TA: Okay, we're going to play a game about 'healthy and 'unhealthy food'. Repeat after me. 'Healthy food'

[3] SS: 'Healthy food'

[4] TA: In your group, please read the instruction carefully and complete the activities in the worksheets. 15 minutes. Understand? Let's start.

[5] SS: Yes. [SS started their tasks. They worked in their group, drawing a mind map, gluing pictures of foods to the mind map, and writing vocabulary next to the pictures. Then they took turns in their group asking 'Do you like …sausages….?' Yes, I do. / No, I don't.

[6] [Teacher walked around the classroom to assist students and allowed them more time to finish the tasks.]

[7] TA: "Alright, class. Five minutes left to complete your worksheet. Then hand in your work on my desk. Don't forget to clean up your desks before leaving the classroom."

Sopin created a classroom environment that was stimulating, and where the differential power relations between the teacher and students were emphasised, as illustrated in line numbers 1, 6, and 7. She created a learning environment in which she became a guide or entertaining host of pleasurable activities, such as the one above with images and games in line numbers 1 and 5. This demonstrates how Sopin employed 'pastoral care' to shepherd her 'flock' – 'her students', when required. As Foucault (1982, p. 783) states, "It is a form of power that guides not only the whole community but each individual, over his entire life".

Often the students enjoyed the activities, and were eager to answer questions or volunteer, as reflected in line numbers 4 and 5 of the field notes excerpt. This example of field note excerpts illustrates the relationship between activities directed by Sopin, and the students' learning behaviours. The students' learning behaviours,

for example line numbers 3 and 5, were guided and facilitated during the learning of English vocabulary, brainstorming, and mind mapping.

In relation to pastoral power, by gaining knowledge of individuals in this way, a pastor gains power over his 'flock', similar to the classroom practice where the teacher is responsible for students' knowledge in English writing (Foucault, 1982; Tudor, 2001 cited in Oral, 2013). Pearson (2010) asserted that Foucault's concept of pastoral power "becomes even more evident as one examines the specific techniques used by the Inuit to ensure that their children are properly enculturated into their society" (p. 53). It was apparent that in terms of power relations enacted through the teacher's pedagogy, there was an exercise of pastoral power between Sopin and her students. In line number 6, Sopin circulated around the classroom to assist students who needed help by explaining or guiding their ideas. Students followed the teacher's guidance, while they were gaining knowledge of accurate spelling, vocabulary choice, and using grammar by themselves. As a pastor, the teacher attempted complete control of the flock, and through students' constant gaze attempted to ensure their well-being. Pastoral power occurred in these behaviours, with Sopin attempting to comprehend all the pedagogical needs of her students, which can be seen in line numbers 2, 3 and 5, clearly aiming to produce knowledge in students (Gore, 1995).

Power implicated in Lina's classes

Lina sometimes translated words, or asked students to guess word meanings. Her examples focused on vocabulary building. In addition to using many pictures and authentic objects to illustrate points, she used mind mapping. Mind-mapping plays an important role in enhancing students' writing ability by assisting students to identify important ideas, and show how these ideas fit together (Ningrum, 2012).

Analysing data from observation field notes and selected students' writing work samples from Lina's classroom, the researcher found that Lina attended to her students English language learning needs with different ways to teach vocabulary in EFL, as well as by teaching the functional grammatical forms needed for varied social contexts (e.g. greeting, asking for help).

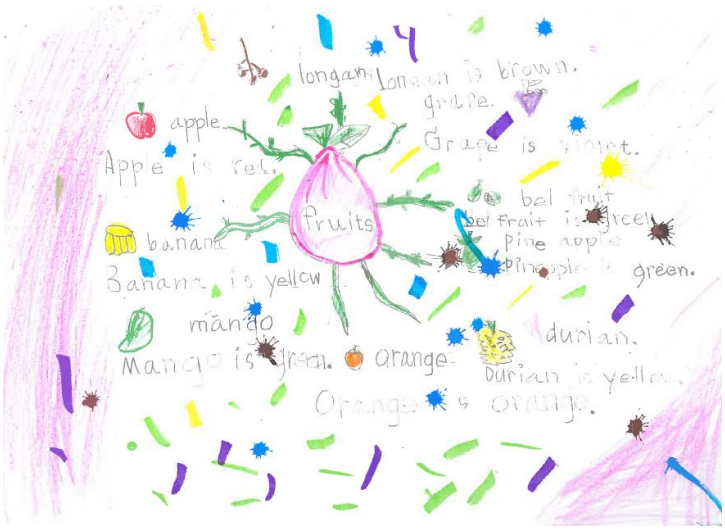


Figure 5.4. An example of a vocabulary mind map from 4th grade student: Theme Fruit.

Lina motivated the students to develop their own vocabulary in English by using a mind mapping technique. Students can generate words based on theme or topic they are interested in or introduced to the class by the teacher. After introducing the theme 'Fruit', Lina dictated a mind map as the pre-writing activity (Hyland, 2003). In Figure 5.4, the students individually drew their mind maps, coloured in, and wrote down 'fruit' vocabulary near each fruit drawing. Some students could not spell some words, e.g. 'strawberry', so they turned to Lina for help. Others looked up the words in a Thai-English dictionary to solve the spelling problem. Further, the researcher noticed that some students asked their peers to spell difficult words, and

this was not discouraged by the teacher. It can be argued that Lina used a mind mapping technique in teaching writing to assist her students in learning vocabulary.

Pastoral power was observed in the way that Lina directed the class by introducing an activity of mind mapping to students. In Lina's practice, she sometimes translated words, or asked students to guess word meanings. The examples provided by Lina focused on vocabulary building. In addition to using many pictures and authentic objects to illustrate points, she used mind mapping. She also asked student volunteers to write words on the blackboard and had the whole class read aloud. This practice illustrates that Lina watches her students in action both as a whole class and as individuals. In Foucault's terms (Rabinow, 2000), Lina performed as a 'good' pastor in the way that she looked after her students and made sure that they understood the lessons properly. She not only looked after the whole class, she also looked after the individuals.

The control in pastoral power occurs through the teacher desiring to have control of their 'outward and inward' behaviour (Foucault, 1982, p. 227). This power would be guiding the students to control their outward behaviour and ensure that they comprehended and did not hide their lack of understanding from the teacher. Thus, pastoral power ensures that the gaze operates to control the body and soul of the person (Foucault, 1982). The students are supposed to have full faith in the teacher and bare their souls to the pastor or teacher through confession. In contrast, teachers as pastors need to provide suitable and appropriate teaching pedagogies to ensure the students are developing their learning behaviours and knowledge of English language (Foucault, 1978).

Sopin and Lina started their classes by brainstorming. The students were urged to think and share ideas by answering questions and noting down their ideas on the

blackboard. The purposes of brainstorming were to gain the students' backgrounds on the specific topics, to have the students think, and to prepare them to write. Richards (1990) argued that a brainstorming strategy can facilitate the classroom interaction process. The brainstorming technique was integrated as a part of the teaching of writing. The students are put in the position of activating their knowledge (Rao, 2007). They are urged to think of their background knowledge of a specific topic and English language knowledge, such as vocabulary, sentence structure. In relation to pastoral power, the students controlled their group work, whereas Sopin and Lina, instead of governing the class, were facilitators for developing students' writing skills. In this way, students became more confident and productive in their English language. As Rao (2007) notes, brainstorming offers the opportunity for students to interact with each other (in groups and in class) and to share their opinions. This illustrates the circulation of pastoral power between students and students, which enable students to build up and develop their communicative skills in English. Although, as the researcher observed, most students used Thai (L1) to communicate, some students spoke English as much as they could. Foucault (1984, p. 422 as cited in Pearson, 2010) points out that pastoral power is exercised when knowledge of a person's mind, soul, and innermost secrets is essential. With this perspective, the students found that using L2 (English) to communicate helped them develop English speaking skills.

Interview data analysis

In terms of pedagogy associated with the curriculum, Question 16, "Could you tell me about the overall pedagogies you use in your classroom?" was asked to illustrate the teacher's knowledge of each pedagogy practised in their classes. Lina's answer to Question 16 was as follows:

For overall pedagogies applied in my classroom, it started from a game or a song to be a warm-up activity in order to prepare the students for the lessons. Then content and sentence structure content was presented. The students could practise their vocabularies, write simple affirmative sentences, and engage in questioning and answering. The students practise with the sentence structure presented. They practise speaking and writing. They also practise with work sheets, completed individual work and group work, and I counsel and advise. Finally, we sing and play games. The students like to do the activities in the class. It is a lively class and makes a good learning environment.

According to Lina's answers above, it was clear that she frequently practised various spelling strategies to build up students' vocabulary knowledge in order to help them write with fewer errors. This observation is also supported by data analysis from classroom field notes and interpretation: Lina gave verbal correction and explanation, and also introduced new words while students were doing their writing tasks. However, spelling practice, such as word cards, was one of the strategies which Lina used to improve students' writing skill, according to the data collected in this study. Other pedagogies, such as songs, guessing games, matching words and pictures were also used help students build up knowledge of English vocabulary. Although her English classes were constructed from the *Say Hello 4* materials, Lina was not restricted by these commercial materials; rather, she started her lessons with vocabulary activities for the EFL classroom such as dictation, bingo games, and chants.

Sopin's response to Question 16 was:

All 3 approaches are applied in this class, for example, reading dialogues, and then answering questions. After that, they [students] create their own dialogues. I use both student-centred and teacher-centred approaches.

Examining Sopin's classes, in response to pedagogy, the power relations between teacher and students could be seen in question-answer activities, or

classroom dialogues. Sopin used questions to motivate students' attention to her teaching and to encourage them to think. Furthermore, Sopin would encourage students to raise questions about the topic they were studying. It was not only Sopin and individual students who engaged in conversation, but also the whole class who discussed and shared ideas. This conversation involved questions and answers from both Sopin and her class of students. Then Sopin summarised by writing on the blackboard, or by asking the student volunteer to write the summary of the topic on the blackboard. These are the examples of pastoral power exhibited by Sopin in the use of question-answer technique, which enabled Sopin and her students to negotiate, to discuss, and to find the answers together.

The students were often asked to write down the answers in their notebooks. This means Sopin initiated the majority of questions and controlled the direction of the discussion, at the same time guiding the students to take turns in an 'asking-answering' pattern. It is significant that the teacher raised most of the questions and directed this process for the students. The students learn to raise questions and attempt to answer the questions in their group work. However, in the Thai EFL classroom, student-to-student turns in the information-sharing stage were rarely seen. This also occurred in Sopin's classes. Thus, Sopin's teaching utilised this strategy, though at other times, she tried to share more power with her students. This illustrated that the whole class activities or classroom interactions generated pastoral power, which is categorised as totalisation (Gore, 2002).

Question 17 was asked to gain deep insight into the current practice of pedagogies that the teachers use in their classrooms, and the opinions of the teachers about their use of these pedagogies.

Question 17, "Do you think the pedagogies that you use help your students improve writing skills? If yes, please explain how? If no, why do you think that it is a case?" Lina's answer was:

> *I think the current pedagogies could help the students improve their writing skills because they can practise their vocabularies and can learn more vocabularies. With repeated using of the sentence structure, they can understand, remember and write the sentences by themselves. I usually review and give them many examples, so most of them can improve their writing. They can write in different patterns, apply mind mapping and write questioning and answering sentences.*

Lina practised spelling and word choice strategies in her teaching instruction, which is seen from her responses to interview Question numbers 16 and 17. In particular, it was noted that her teaching methods addressed knowledge of vocabulary and meanings and the use of vocabulary to promote students' writing skills. The students were struggling to work in groups while completing their worksheets successfully.

Sopin's answer to Question 17 was as follows:

> *In my opinion, after I applied these pedagogies, the students' English writing skills have improved, for example, their accuracy with using conjunctions (e.g. and, but, if). The more they practise writing, the more their writing skills improve.*

Sopin implemented EFL activities in writing; for instance, mind mapping in the pre-writing stage and matching vocabulary games. She ascertains that her students' writing skills are being improved with fewer mistakes made in spelling. Hence, she still focuses on continually practising writing – the students keep on writing and learn from strategies which promote their writing skills. A mind-mapping technique is noted as a teaching tool that can effectively improve students' writing ability in the

way that it helps the students to brainstorm, take notes, and develop concepts and ideas (Buzan & Buzan, 1995).

Sopin and Lina expressed similar opinions in the interviews that the students had limited English vocabulary knowledge; hence, when the students had problems with abstract ideas, they could not translate their ideas into English. As a result, they used Thai in their first drafts, and then used a Thai-English dictionary to help them when they revised their drafts. In the observation, the students frequently used Thai-English and English-Thai dictionaries when they had a problem with vocabulary. Regardless of using the dictionary, they used those words ungrammatically in context, so their writing tasks were still incorrect, with errors in word choice or misspelling.

The students also experienced difficulty when they wrote in English, for example, handwriting, spelling, and word choice; the content which students copied did not demonstrate creativity, but closely followed the teacher's examples. However, this circumstance is understandable, because the students in the upper primary level (in this case Grades 5 and 6, aged 11-12) had little experience in writing a story or paragraph. The students had simple or basic ideas and details of what to write when they wrote about themselves, or other topics, such as My family and My school, which are the familiar topics they typically were asked to write about. Badger and White (2000) suggested that in the product approach, "free writing aims to make learners aware of certain features of a particular text" (p. 153). For example, the students produced a piece of guided writing based on a picture of a house and at the stage of free writing, they wrote a description of their own home imitating the structure provided by a teacher.

Video recording data analysis

One of the classroom activities that Sopin used to promote writing skills was vocabulary practice, which appeared in individual work, pair work, and group work. In the observation, the students had no difficulties doing activities that required them to work individually, such as 'filling in missing words in the gaps' exercises. Nevertheless, the students seemed to have issues in completing complicated writing tasks that required them to work in a group. This was evidenced by the observation and video recording of classroom activities involving group work. For instance, most groups were formed on the basis of pairing: students who were good at English with those who demonstrated lower English proficiency. Some students were doing the work attentively, while there were also others who were not paying attention to the assigned tasks. Ultimately, it appeared that only one or two students in the group actually completed the writing tasks, and the rest preferred to talk about other things beyond the topic or to tease one another. In terms of power, even though Sopin helped to complete the tasks by giving examples on the blackboard, some students were not attentively participating in the activities. To sum up, encouragement by teachers serves to guide the students to perform 'good' learning behaviours to be successful in learning English. The following excerpt illustrates students' pastoral power.

Video excerpt 1

S5.1: What can I help with?

S5.2: [keeps silent and pays attention to what she's writing]

S5.1: [turn to another girl] What do you want me to do?

S5.3: OK. Let me finish drawing, and you write the vocabularies.

S5.1: [Nodded] Fine. I'll get a dictionary to look up the meanings of difficult

words.

Video excerpt 2

S5.1: It's incorrect, here. [Pointing]

S5.2: Where? Why's it not correct?

S5.3: I know! It's happier than – it's –ier, not –yer

S5.1: Umm. Ok. [Erased and corrected the sentence. They kept doing the assignment, which was writing sentences to describe the pictures.]

Video excerpts 1 and 2 show that the students had problems spelling words correctly, and as a result, some students preferred to ask their friends to spell certain words for them, or independently consulted a dictionary. When students were unable to work in a group effectively, they decided to work individually (Video excerpt 1). However, some students could produce written work by working as a team. In video excerpt 2 above, the researcher observed that it was difficult to have every group member involved in the writing activity.

In Video excerpt 3, it seemed that S6.1 assisted her peers while doing group work. Meanwhile, S6.2 was uncertain about the instructions for the exercise, so S6.2 hesitated and asked for help. This demonstrates how pastoral power is exercised student-to-student: one confident student acts like a pastor who controls or guides the group of peers to finish the writing activities successfully, and reinforces her own knowledge of using adjectives at the same time (Foucault, 1984). Pastoral power was exercised in this situation, in which students assisted themselves in order to finish the writing tasks. Pastoral power established 'control of their behaviour' (Foucault, 1982) in order to produce certain types of outcomes. That is, the students themselves made a plan and directed the way to complete the writing task.

Video excerpt 3

S6.1: I'm writing only 3 sentences. [Finish and wait for other friends to complete the assignment]

S6.2: S6.1, Do we have to write 3 sentences each?

S6.1: Yes, of course. We have made a deal. Choose 3 adjectives to make sentences.

S6.2: But…I need help. I'm not sure about the grammar. Who checks the grammar?

The video excerpt shows the interactions as students learned to write. The teacher created a learning environment that was fun, enjoyable and effective for improving the students' writing skills. Sopin set up the exercises, guiding students to accomplish their writing. Students tended to correctly spell simple words at first, and later their spelling was better. For some, errors in spelling could still be seen in their writing tasks, but overall, most of the students learned from their former mistakes and corrected spelling errors before handing in worksheets to Sopin. However, although they learned more vocabulary, as found from the classroom observation, when they wrote sentences, they had a problem with applying their knowledge of vocabulary choice.

Through Sopin's English classes, power was demonstrated as a form of pastoral power. The role of Sopin was as a facilitator, or a pastor who was to assist the students in a way that they did not feel controlled, but at the same time she used her gaze to oversee and control learning. Pastoral power operated in Sopin's classes, such as her gentle exercise of controlling behaviour, and significant examples are shown below to support this interpretation. Also, pastoral power was exercised between students and students, which can be seen through their actions, such as

making choices for the collective benefit of the group, taking actions to help peers, or encouraging friends to work as a team or to complete the assigned tasks from the teacher. Because pastoral power operates through 'the act of confession' (Foucault, 1978, p, 58), Sopin was using it as a way to convince the students to tell her what they knew and what they did not, to trust her and her teaching. Again, student-to-student turns in the information-sharing stage were rare. Thus, Sopin dominated this strategy though she tried to share power with students.

To summarise, techniques of pastoral power within the pedagogical practices of Lina and Sopin were revealed in different actions. It appeared that pastoral power was exercised through activities directed by Sopin. Lina's interview illustrates some of the relations between pastoral power and pedagogies which she practised with her students. Pastoral power also functioned when students conducted group work, but was rarely seen because only bright students who were good at English demonstrated behaviours indicating 'a pastor' to peers. However, how students acted under Sopin's supervision, counselling, suggestion, or pastoral control while they were performing writing tasks, indicates students' self-learning behaviours to gain knowledge of English through some teaching strategies. Thus it could be concluded that pastoral power was exercised over the students as subjects to be controlled, and shaped through techniques and teaching pedagogies such as games, songs, group work, and vocabulary practice so as to achieve the objectives of English lessons.

5.1.3 Bio-power and pedagogy

As previously described in Chapter 3, bio-power is established over people in controlling their lives and governing populations, and overlaps with disciplinary power (Ball, 2008). In brief, the exercise of bio-power over populations "may be managed on both an individual and a group basis" (Taylor, 2010, p. 44). Bio-power

is concerned with the administration of life, and utilisation of the population as a productive resource (Ball, 2008). In education, for example, the Thai government aims to make the children educated, so it attempts to manage and regulate education administration throughout the country in schools, colleges, and academic institutions in order to ensure the quality of Thai education. The language learning policy in Thailand is based on the idea of learner-centred learning. This influences teachers to modify their teaching style to adopt communicative learning and teaching.

To manage the teaching and learning of the English language for the population, techniques of bio-power have been exercised through individual students through the practice of pedagogies and exercise of disciplinary power, such as examination and normalisation (Foucault, 1977). In terms of language teaching, this means that the individual student is observed in their learning behaviours and trained to meet the standard of norms in EFL classrooms. The norm associates power with status alone and without foregrounding of any reasons (Carspecken, 1996). The teachers operate this power through status as a teacher when they teach, such as saying "Everybody, open your workbook" (see 5.1.1.2 'Normalisation and pedagogy').

The Thai government is responsible for the reproduction of a viable society and the curriculum as authorised by the Ministry of Education through the *National Education Acts 1999*. The *Basic Education Core Curriculum 2008* is the relevant policy document for teachers, and is used to contextualise the pedagogical implications for Thai teachers of English to prepare teaching methods for Thai primary school students. In the field note excerpt, teachers inform their students of the objectives of day lessons, associated with the four standards of English language

(OBEC, 2008). Lina wrote the enabling objectives of the lesson on the blackboard and explained what and how to achieve the goals of learning to the students.

It is recognised that bio-power is generated through education stakeholders such as policy makers, the principal of the school, the teachers, and the students. Foucault (1990) states that bio-power is not "a set of mechanisms which guarantee control by the state of its citizens" (p. 92 as cited in Gastaldo, 1996). Rather, bio-power administers life (Taylor, 2010, p. 44). It incorporates certain aspects of disciplinary power (O'Farrell, 2005). Bio-power is established through a set of power techniques. The relations of bio-power have been explored in the data analysis relating to the implications of English curriculum in the *Basic Education Core Curriculum* 2008, including teachers' pedagogies.

Field note excerpt

[40] TB: Good morning class. How are you today?

[41] SS: Good morning Teacher. I'm fine, thank you. And you?

[42] TB: I'm very well, thank you. Sit down, please.

[43] TB called out students' names to check absences.

[44] TB wrote the objectives of the day lesson on a blackboard and read them aloud.

As shown in the observation field notes taken in her class, Lina used a technique of gaze or surveillance to ensure a productive learning environment and prepared the students for the English lesson, as noted in line numbers 40, 41, 42, and 43. It should be noted here that the checking of absences and attendance is caught up in bio-power relations through 'the accountability system' (Foucault, 1990) of the Thai government and compulsory schooling mandates. In this excerpt, Lina also showed a practice of bio-power by passing on to students the curriculum

benchmarks. This is evident in line number 44 – the students were informed of the objectives of the lesson at the beginning of the class. Bio-power was exercised since Lina always began her class by informing the students of the objectives, which ascended directly from four strands and standards (OBEC, 2008 p. 253).

The following extract from Sopin's classes reveals how bio-power was exhibited through her teaching practices.

Field note excerpt

[45] TA: Do you understand the lesson today, students?

[46] SS: Yes, teacher.

[47] TA: Alright, students. I just want to make sure that you all understand the lesson today. Now tell me what we have learned today.

[48] Nida, Waree, and Meta. Can each of you write a sentence using the past tense of the verb on the blackboard? Use the words we learned at the beginning of the period.

[49] [TA writes down the result of a lesson plan, her comments in her document as a record.]

The examples in line numbers 45, 46, and 47 show that Sopin monitored the students' learning behaviours by asking about their understanding of the lesson. She also assisted them to conclude the lesson by selecting some students to write sentences on the blackboard, since the students were silent after they were asked what they had learned. Significantly, based on the document analysis and the informal talk with Sopin, it was found that she recorded and made comments on her teaching methods, and the student results relating to four strands and standards (line number 49).

In the following section, the analysis of Lina's interview transcript is discussed in terms of bio-power and teaching practice relationships. The findings are based on

the identification of bio-power, including regulated, practised, produced, and applied, and foundational operations of bio-power, and bio-power that is exercised through association. All these were coded from interview transcripts to illustrate the evidence of bio-power.

Interview question 5 addressed bio-power: "Could you tell me about the English course syllabus used in this school?" Lina's answer is as follows.

> *The English curriculum used in the school was based on the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008) where the teaching process was 3Ps, communicative approach, and other theories applied to teaching. It was not all student-centred, but it was a combination of teacher-centred approach and student-centred approach, because the teachers sometimes had to guide the learners.*

From Lina's answer, in terms of issues related to pedagogical implications for Thai teachers of English, it could be argued that teaching and learning activities are related to objectives and content, focusing on English communicative skill drills. However, in her situation, the teacher-centred approach is still her main approach. This can be seen in that the grammar-translation approach or 3Ps is still applied in her teaching. Lina has been attempting to use different learning activities and learning materials, and also applying learner-centred approach as much as possible.

Sopin's answer to Question 5 was interpreted to demonstrate the specific practices of bio-power and pedagogies:

> *The English curriculum used in the school, based on the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008), was focused on communicative English, culture, technology and etc. The school applied it and the teacher then created teaching plans relating to indicators in the core curriculum correctly.*

Sopin's answer illustrates the ways in which the curriculum was applied to the real classroom situation. Current teaching and learning activities were based on the

curriculum, which guides teachers to focus on students as the centre of learning activities and to promote their English proficiency.

To seek the teachers' understanding of the curriculum and how they apply these to teaching English writing, evaluating and assessing their practices, question 6 was asked of teachers: "How closely is the school curriculum associated with the Thai National Curriculum?" Lina's answer was:

> *The curriculum used in the school is associated with the Office of the Basic Education Commission's curriculum or the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008) with a proportion of 70:30. There was an analysis of the suitability of its curriculum with the context of the school, the students' family and community.*

In the case of Lina, bio-power operated through her knowledge of the *Basic Education Core Curriculum 2008*: she designed the English course syllabus to suit the school's context. Since Lina was trained specifically within curriculum orientation guidelines and the application of the curriculum, she performed her teaching practice through setting standards. With regard to English as a compulsory subject at the primary school level, upper primary students (Grade 4-6) are expected to be exposed to cultural issues and intercultural communication (OBEC, 2008). Therefore, through her analysis of the curriculum policy document, Lina ensured that all components dictated in the curriculum were covered, and that appropriate learning was taking place in her school. The concept of bio-power can be seen here (Foucault, 1984) in the teacher's reproduction of the curriculum mandates for the control of the population through education.

Likewise, Sopin's answer below reveals that she always relies on the principles of language policy dictated in the curriculum. The English course syllabus was designed to fit the school context. For instance, there are eight units in a

Fundamental English course for Grade 5; themes of each unit are familiar to students, such as 'An Interesting Place', and 'Seasons in Thailand'.

> *The curriculum used was improved to be better matched to the students' and the schools' context, as well as the core curriculum.*

Interestingly, Sopin's answer suggests that the *Basic Core Curriculum 2008*, with specific reference to the English language as a compulsory subject at primary education level from Grades 1-6, has guided the school to provide fundamental English language requirements for primary school students. She stated that it was important to improve the school curriculum as well as to improve English language teachers' education in order to promote students' learning skills.

The two-poled diagram of bio-power in Chapter 3 section 3.2.3 illustrates how bio-power circulates in the education administration of a country. Again, briefly summarised here, bio-politics is the 'macro-technology' of bio-power (Taylor, 2010) that employs regulatory controls and interventions to manage a population (Gastaldo, 1996). In Thailand, bio-power is exercised to govern the educational system and the wellbeing of its population by the Thai government to ensure that students receive an equal standard of education administration by using a national curriculum. This curriculum is then implemented to schools by the committee, the principal, and the teachers to students at all levels of the school system.

It is noted that the Ministry works to ensure the development of students, which is consistent with its goal to care for its people's wealth and health. In examining this process of constructing a disciplined society, the notion of the individual body was invented, as Foucault (1991) points out, and many power techniques have been developed since then to make political existence docile – a body which can be 'subjected, used, transformed, and improved' (p. 136 as cited in

Gastaldo, 1996). Thus, in the Thai EFL classroom, in order to ensure that the students are productive and successful in learning the English language, teachers have to apply pedagogies to enhance students' ability in English usage. That is, the teachers must observe, regulate and control the students' behaviours as necessary to learn English.

An anatomo-politics of the human body, at the other pole, focuses on the body as a machine (Foucault, 1990, p. 139 as cited in Taylor, 2010, p. 45). In schooling, disciplinary power was exhibited, focusing on individual bodies/students to be provided knowledge of English language, aiming to achieve the learning standards of the *Foreign Languages Core Curriculum* (OBEC, 2008). Bio-power is the concern with the welfare of the population and individuals and enhancing their capabilities – the features of power relations which Foucault emphasises (Foucault, as cited in Cousins & Hussain, 1984). In the Thai EFL context, primary education aims to develop the quality of life of learners, enabling students to properly serve society, assuming their roles and responsibilities as good citizens under a democratic constitutional monarchy (Ampra & Thaithae, 2000).

In examining the two teacher participants' practising pedagogies in their classes through Foucault's lens of bio-power (Foucault, 1990; 2000), activities necessary for developing English writing skills were introduced to their students. These activities were based on students' interests, for example, matching games, word puzzles, and developing desirable habits, attitudes towards English learning, and behaviours leading to an acceptable character not only in the classroom, but also in the social community. As Foucault's elaborates, bio-power means to reproduce society's standards and norms (1997). Discipline is exercised through imposing

precise norms (normalisation), which is known as national standards for educational programs (Ransom, 1997).

According to Gastaldo (1996), the employment of disciplinary power divides the body in parts and trains it, aiming at efficiency of the parts (individualisation) and of the whole (totalisation) (Gore, 2002; O'Farrell, 2005). Gastaldo (1996) further states that this occurs in a subtle and constant way, in a web of micropowers, each including the use of space, time, and everyday practices.

In this section, bio-power is identified by exploring evidence in relation to Foucault's notions (1990; 2000) of power and the teaching practices of two teacher participants. Teachers demonstrated that they were aware of the regulations of the curriculum and their obligation to select learner-centred teaching activities, which in this case, function through bio-power to control the population.

O'Farrell (2005, p. 106) argues, "The forms of knowledge and practices relating to hygiene, public health, the control of reproduction and sexuality became the subject of administrative interest, with very detailed forms of knowledge being put in place to gather knowledge and manage populations". Hence, bio-power operates through some techniques of discipline, such as surveillance, examination, and regulations (Foucault, 1977).

5.1.4 Resistance to power in the classroom

In examining EFL classes, student resistance was found in several forms of actions. When teachers exercised their power, the students seemed to resist a little. The following evidence shows student resistance to some sorts of teachers' power in their classroom interactions.

Field note excerpt

[53] TA: Everyone, now use 10 given words to write up 10 sentences. I will give you 20 minutes for this task. Understand?

[54] SS: Yes, teacher. [Some of the students started writing.]

[55] Ura: Teacher, can we just write 5 sentences.]

[56] Why? Ura. It is not difficult. Just try.

[57] Suree: Teacher Lina, how about we write 5 sentences in class and 5 ones for homework.

The dialogue shows that the students tried to act and interact with Lina in order to achieve their wish. It seemed that student resistance of this kind had some influence over the teacher, because ultimately Lina agreed to leave another 5 sentences for homework. In line 56, the teacher expected the students to do what she ordered; however, a student successfully negotiated with the teacher (line 57). Evidence shows resistance by students who simply did not do assigned work. Passive resistance, which occurred in Lina's classroom, not only impacted on her teaching, but also impacted on students' learning.

Based on student reactions to the teachers' authority and knowledge, it appeared that students engaged in tasks willingly and enthusiastically in both Lina's and Sopin's classes. However, there were a couple of different ways by which resistance occurred in classroom interactions. Resistance to the teacher's instruction was found in Lina's class when two boys were quarrelling over a cartoon book instead of performing a writing task (see also 5.1.1.5 Coercive power). This circumstance showed that these two boys resisted their teacher's teaching. Lina could not gain consent from these students by exercising normative power. Rather, she

exerted coercive power. Lina said, “If you don’t stop fighting, you will get out of the classroom”. Students avoided this consequence through fear of punishment, so they stopped their misbehaviour immediately. Thus, it was noted that although students engaged in resistance, they were not successful in resisting the teacher’s exercise of coercive power.

However, resistance can be recognised in other perspectives, as Foucault (1997) suggests that resistance is likely to occur in power relations. Given the fact that “there are multiplicities of resistance as there are a multiplicity of relations to power” (St. Pierre, 2000, p. 492), resistance is found in subjective states (Carspecken, 1996) within both students and teachers. For example, Hope (2005) argues that student resistance of surveillance is found in schools, regarding the use of Internet such as limited use of computer databases.

Moreover, teachers may have experience of resistance to the schooling system. For example, teachers resist the power of educational policy and the National Curriculum by applying and implementing different and alternative ways of teaching pedagogies, which they think will be beneficial to their students. However, in this study, teachers could not be questioned about their personal perceptions about the curriculum and school policy. As Carspecken (1996, pp. 104-105) suggests, it is impossible to deduce with certainty “a subject’s internal state of mind”, but the researcher can surmise that the teachers in this study demonstrated some resistance to the power of government through their not following the policy to the letter, in their desire to assist their students’ learning. Given students’ low level of English proficiency, and insufficient English learning resources, although they were aware of government policy of a learner-centred approach, they would often apply a teacher-centred approach. This shows that although teachers followed the learning indicators

and benchmarks to instruct English lessons, they resisted applying every approach stated in the curriculum (Jindapitak, 2013). Further, a teacher may resist use of only the commercial textbooks that are compulsorily designated to be used in schools (Serrado & Azcarate, 2006). As Carspecken (1996) states, a subject's internal state of mind is associated with a "certain subjective state (feelings and intentions) at the time of acting (p. 104). Thus, we can infer teachers' resistance in subtle acts in their teaching and approach to policy could have been influenced by the subjective state of feeling at the time of acting.

5.2 SUMMARY

This chapter presents the research findings in relation to the research question, "***How is power implicated in EFL writing pedagogies in Thai primary classrooms?"*** The research findings are discussed in relation to the themes of power and pedagogy since this research is to investigate and examine pedagogical power relations in the EFL writing classroom. Using Carspecken's (1996) method to investigate social action, subjective experience, and conditions influencing action and experience, the research record comprised the observed interactions with the teachers and the students in classrooms, with field notes and video recordings.

Most importantly, the analysis and discussion here has demonstrated how Foucault's theories of power relations are realised in the teacher's enactment of EFL writing pedagogies. Foucault does not see power as an entity, but as a relationship (Foucault, 1982). This means it is essential to understand how pedagogy is related to power, and how such power is exercised in schooling contexts. For example, in the Thai EFL classroom, when the students respond to their teacher's question, some of them immediately answered, while others preferred silence. It can be said that the interaction between the teacher and students can be categorised differently on

account of different realisations of power. Therefore, the researcher focuses this report of findings based on understandings of Foucauldian notions of power.

Adopting Foucauldian perspectives, as a part of the primary school institution, classroom space enables the exercise of power control over the students in relation to teachers' pedagogical practices. In this respect, the teachers observed the students as if they were "the object of the disciplinary gaze" (Maynard, 2007, p. 388) in the space. It is noted that space facilitates teaching and learning procedures, such as writing in group work or individual work. Students were controlled, practised, and regulated themselves as 'normal' behaviours by techniques of disciplinary power.

The exercise of disciplinary power and pedagogies was analysed by applying Foucault's classifications of power (Foucault, 1977). These include operations of disciplinary power, normalisation, hierarchical observation, and examination, which were exercised in the EFL classroom. Reward power is often associated with teacher power, such as by providing praise to well-behaved students, as well as the use of coercive power, which was exhibited when teachers prevented students from undesirable behaviours. The relations between certain forms of power, for instance, reward power and coercive power, are complex, and are sometimes exercised in the same situation. These complexities will be discussed in greater depth in Chapter 6.

Pastoral power was exercised and shifted in varying forms through activities in EFL classes, directed by Sopin and Lina. For example, power was shared and distributed in group work and mind mapping of vocabulary, but less so in individual writing assignments. Students completed some writing tasks with a certain degree of independence, whereas at other times, the role of teachers demonstrated pastoral power, as facilitators.

Bio-power was noted in the writing classrooms when Sopin and Lina carried out their teaching; for instance, they constructed the lesson plan in association with the learning strands, which are dictated in the curriculum. In their classes, to ensure that the students are productive and successful in English writing, they applied suitable pedagogies to develop students' writing ability. The teachers observed, regulated and controlled the students' behaviours so that the students could achieve the standard of English language learning.

Chapter 6 provides the discussion and interpretation of the findings, and key issues related to the research question. This chapter also presents comparisons drawn between the two teacher participants. This allows the researcher to analyse multiple sources of data critically in order to theorise the findings about relations between pedagogy and power in the Thai EFL writing classroom.

Chapter 6: Discussions, Conclusion, and Recommendations

6.0 INTRODUCTION

This study set out to examine how Thai EFL teachers at the primary school level implemented pedagogies to teach writing; to investigate types of power and how they influenced social action in the classroom; and, specifically, to extend Foucault's conceptualisations of power in the Thai EFL context. To achieve these goals, a critical ethnographic approach based on Carspecken's (1996) Critical Ethnography in Educational Research was used to research the EFL context in the Chiang Mai area in Thailand as a sociocultural community. As Janks (2010) has noted, research into language and its ideological relations to power in education is a relatively recent phenomenon, particularly when applied to primary and secondary schools, and so this research offers new perspectives on this area in a particular Thai context. Discussions of the findings in this chapter are divided into five sub-sections, that together interpret the relations between teachers' pedagogical implementation and the exercise of power. Discussions of the findings are separated into power themes and sub-themes, to construct a clear understanding of the research findings.

6.1 DISCUSSIONS OF THE FINDINGS

The data analysis presented in Chapter 5 yielded insights regarding the exercise of disciplinary power, which is characterised by hierarchical observation, normalising judgement, and examination. This chapter aims to elaborate the analytic possibilities of Foucault's notion of power to make comparisons between the two classroom cases that exhibited both heterogeneous and homogenous patterns in the

exercise of power, while highlighting their inter-relationship within the school level routine practices.

The following Tables 6.1-6.5 are presented topically, to summarise the discussion visually, with explanatory sections between each table. The tables and related discussions are organised by the Foucauldian themes that emerged in the analysis – space and power, disciplinary power, bio-power and governmentality, and pastoral power. This is followed by a discussion of the themes pertaining to Carspecken's (1996) typology of power, including reward power, coercive power, normative power, and interactive power.

Table 6.1

Summary of findings: power and pedagogy in EFL writing classes: Spaces and exercise of power

Foucault's powers	Power Characteristics	Sopin's pedagogy implementation	Lina's pedagogy implementation
1. Space & power	The distribution of power at times reflected the historical role of teachers in schools, with uses of space that drew attention to the power of the teacher, and at other times was more shared among the students.	Sopin distributed power to students by asking students to write answers on the blackboard. Students walked from their desks to the front of the classroom, answering questions verbally or writing answers on the blackboard.	Lina taught new words, grammar, and sentences in front of the classroom, writing some grammar rules, or attaching a word card on the blackboard. Students were seated facing the blackboard.
2. Disciplinary power	The classroom space dictated a form of disciplinary power that enabled the teacher to circulate around the classroom and observe students' learning behaviours using surveillance.	Sopin liked to stand in front of the class and observed her students working on writing activities in groups or individually.	Lina generally stood in front of the class and sometimes walked around the room to gain a better vantage point to observe student behaviour while teaching. The spaces between each row of students' desks enabled her to continually monitor and record her students' learning behaviours and movements.

3. Reward power	Teachers used rewards to encourage students to behave in the desired ways. "Rewards" include scores, recognition, and prizes. "Rewards" also include verbal approval, encouragement and praise.	Sopin came closer to the students and complimented them verbally. She provided positive reinforcement to specific students when they performed appropriate behaviour, making statements such as 'Keep going'.	Lina walked closer to the students to compliment them when they gave correct answers. Lina's manner was active, energetic, and gentle. She offered fun activities as a reward for good work.
4. Coercive power	The exercise of coercive power assisted the teachers to control the classes by rules, including sanctions and acts of punishment.	Sopin wrote the students' names on the blackboard and marked '-1', which meant that student did not pay attention to class and therefore lost a reward point.	Lina told the two quarrelling boys to stop, otherwise they would be sent out of the classroom. Being sent outside of the classroom space excluded the learners from the privilege of the interactions inside the material walls of the classroom.
5. Pastoral power	The teacher adopted the role of facilitator, or a pastor by assisting the students in such a way that they did not feel controlled. Teachers gained their consent through the act of confession, asking them to tell what they had done incorrectly.	Sopin observed and took care of her students while they were seated in groups, and there were spaces between each group so that she could walk around.	Lina set up the steps of the writing work, e.g. 1. Read a worksheet carefully 2. Match the words with the meanings 3. Fill in the blanks with correct words (cloze) 4. Choose 3 words to make sentences. She circulated the classroom to assist each student. Lina also allowed the students to come to her desk if they needed assistance.

Space and exercise of power

In relation to the use of space and power, Sopin used a teacher-centred approach to writing instruction (see Table 6.1). However, how students acted under Sopin's supervision, counselling, suggestion, or pastoral control while they were doing writing tasks, indicates students' self-learning behaviours to gain knowledge of English. Sopin tended to encourage her students to rely on independent learning of vocabulary, grammar, and composition while they were learning new words,

grammar, and writing activities. Nevertheless, she observed that Grade 5 and 6 students still needed suggestions and guidance to complete the assigned writing tasks, such as writing a short story or writing sentences using given words, or other classroom activities. Thus, it could be concluded that pastoral power (see Table 6.1) was exercised over the students as subjects to be controlled and shaped through techniques and teaching pedagogies, such as vocabulary games, word chanting songs, writing group work, and vocabulary practice, so as to achieve the objectives of English lessons. Lina and Sopin used some pre-writing activities, such as mind-mapping, modelling techniques, and sentence combining, which are common in process writing approaches (Badger & White, 2000; Buehl, 2001).

Contrasting Lina's classroom, as indicated in Table 6.1, in terms of power relations, the use of space within the classroom illustrates how power operated between the teacher and the class and between the students. Through the seating arrangement of rows facing the blackboard, Lina was able to do surveillance and gain visibility over her students to ensure that students were attending closely. Classroom management tended to enable English learning activities, for example, writing a short essay, narratives or story-telling, vocabulary, spelling and dictation, matching pictures with word meanings, and so on. Hence, the relations between space and pedagogy were illustrated here in terms of the power that circulated in a classroom space that enabled teachers to implement teaching pedagogies; as Gore (1995) notes, surveillance enables teachers to continually observe the students in the classroom while they are enacting the teaching process, and in this study surveillance operated through the spatial arrangement that allowed teachers to control the class.

Moreover, use of the classroom space, including the space between individuals, was tied to reward power and coercive power in Lina's writing classes (see Table

6.1). For example, Lina reduced space by walking closer to the students to compliment them when they gave correct vocabulary. This enabled her to gain respect and cooperation from the students. Lina motivated them to engage in almost all activities, utilising charm (Carspecken, 1996). On the other hand, Lina exercised coercive power by warning the two quarrelling boys that they would be sent outside of the classroom space if they did not stop the unacceptable behaviour of fighting with each other over a comic book. When they did not obey, they had to write up five sentences using simple past tense in their notebook. Here, the use of space enabled coercive power to be exercised by the teacher to exclude the learners from the privilege of the interactions inside. Thus, coercive power was used as a means of punishment for students who dissented from the norms. In Foucault's terms of discipline, as previously mentioned in Chapter 3, punishment "operates in the process of training and correction" (Foucault, 1977, p. 180). The use of punishment creates "a subject who obeyed without question" (SparkNotes Editors, n.d.). Similarly, in Carspecken's typology of power (1996), a teacher exerts coercive power to stop unpleasant student actions. Students then are forced to obey the teacher in order to avoid being punished.

It is notable that games and songs were used in both Sopin and Lina's classes, and were considered a useful vocabulary consolidation technique. These activities could be used as a "warm-ups" at the beginning of the lesson (Presentation in 3Ps methods, Nunan, 1989; 1999), or as a transition activity between writing and reading or listening. However, this period was never longer than ten to fifteen minutes. For revision, students chose the most difficult vocabulary items, which they found hard to learn. They practised spelling through dictation, which is frequently found in EFL classrooms. Teachers also had students write sentences using those difficult words.

This could happen in the final stage, called Production in the 3Ps method (Nunan, 1989; 1999). The teacher's role in this activity was that of an observer and assessor. It is noted that reward power is exercised when teachers give positive verbal feedback on student performances of the desired behaviour (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

The concepts of surveillance and space as detailed in Chapter 3, section 3.2, enabled the researcher to discuss the relations of pedagogies and disciplinary power, exercised in EFL classrooms. As noted by Lefstein (2002), "Surveillance was hierarchical, enabling teachers constantly to observe student activity and administrators to observe teachers" (p. 1630). As Foucault (1977, p. 172) states, "the school building was to be a mechanism for training"; such training introduces techniques of disciplinary power; hierarchical observation, normalising judgement, and examination. Further, as Baildon (2008) argued, panoptical surveillance promotes disciplinary technologies, such as "timetables, documentation methods, normalising judgments, and examination, are translated into technologies of the self that promise to bring about such ideals as salvation, self-improvement, or continuous learning" (p. 127).

Table 6.2

Summary of findings: power and pedagogy in EFL writing classes: Exercise of disciplinary power

Foucault's powers	Power Characteristics	Sopin's pedagogy implementation	Lina's pedagogy implementation
Disciplinary Power	A machine tool to direct and control individuals' behaviours	Sopin observed the students, monitored students' learning behaviours, and controlled the writing classes by a set of regulations.	Lina observed the students' progress in writing, ranked them by their ability in learning English, and regulated the class activities to the students.
Sub-categories of types of power **1. Hierarchical observation**	Observe and make visible the individuals	Sopin watched her students when they were doing the assigned writing tasks. She noted and recognised who could perform the writing tasks well, and who could not.	Lina looked at the students when she stood at the front of the classroom to check that they were attentive to her teaching. When the students were working at their seats, she walked

			around and through each row of students' desks.
2. Normalising judgement	Individual self-discipline and group control	Sopin wrote the objectives of the lesson on the blackboard; this was to make sure that students knew the aims of the lessons. She organised writing activities, such as individual work, pair work, and group work. Sopin taught the English lessons, assigned writing tasks, allowed time for each task, and corrected students' work.	Lina normalised the students' behaviour through setting rules of performing tasks, such as students individually finishing the writing task and having it checked by peers. Lina used the pictures to help teaching vocabulary. She had her students do the activities by themselves. The students were informed of the steps and time of each task.
3. Examination	Observe students' behaviours, accumulate information, and report to system level administrators	Sopin made the question-answer activities seem like a test to students. Sopin observed her students' performance of writing, making some notes on her lesson plans, and deciding which students needed extra help.	Lina used examination techniques of power to maintain her authoritative status to control the classes. Students finished the vocabulary tests and checked the answers together with her. Lina used dictation of new words and sentences to revise and check students' knowledge of English language every week.

Exercise of disciplinary power and writing pedagogies

In relation to the exercise of disciplinary power, Foucault (1977) outlined three techniques of disciplinary power called "simple instruments" (p. 170), to ensure that the individual conforms to a norm, utilising "corrective mechanisms that coerce by means of continuous examination and hierarchical observation" (Bogard, 1991, p. 325). Sopin and Lina exercised techniques of disciplinary power to maintain the desired learning behaviours, that is to say, to organise and control the students in order to transform their bodies to become "generalised productive obedient, economical, and efficient" (Foucault, 1977, pp. 135-143). These techniques are outlined in the next section.

1. Hierarchical observation

In focusing on power and pedagogy, Sopin's use of writing pedagogies is clearly seen in Table 6.2, which is related to the exercise of disciplinary power. For example, Sopin watched her students when they were doing the assigned writing tasks. She noted and recognised those who could perform the writing tasks well, and those who could not. Disciplinary power within a confined space was exhibited – the exercise of surveillance to control and continually monitor the productivity of students. This illustrated that power relations of surveillance in social interactions, "defined and regulated", are "inscribed at the heart of the practice of teaching, not as an additional or adjacent part, but as a mechanism that is inherent within it, and which increases its efficiency" (Fessenbecker, 2011, p. 747).

Sopin applied a teacher-centred approach to writing instruction, maintaining control over the topics of the writing tasks, ensuring that students followed the grammar rules, and controlling the students' productivity by assigning simple writing exercises in the worksheets that did not permit students to construct their own meaning (see Table 6.2). While the students were engaged in the assigned writing tasks, Sopin watched them, while simultaneously, the students perceived that they were being watched, by continually looking up to identify her location in the room.

Similarly to Sopin's case, Lina was able to apply surveillance and to maintain the overall visibility of her students to account for all individuals through the spatial arrangement of desks and bodies in the classroom. As described in Table 6.1, the classroom seating arrangements enabled Lina to assist each student systematically while they were learning as she walked between each row of student desks. As previously explained in Chapters 3 and 5, surveillance functions in two distinct ways, both associated with the "teacher's gaze" (Foucault, 1977, p. 171).

Foucault (1977) argued that the ‘gaze’ of surveillance is not simply directed at us by others, but is also a way of looking at our own behaviours. Similarly, students monitored their own behaviour and the learning of peers, assisting others in group work to follow the rules, created self-controlled or self-regulated behaviours, which later established norms in learning. Foucault (1977) asserted that “discipline 'makes' individuals; it is the specific technique of a power that regards individuals both as objects and as instruments of its exercise” (p. 170). Even when the teacher was not directly observing all individuals, the students continued to concentrate on their work as if they were being monitored, demonstrating the power of the teacher’s gaze and the operation of self-surveillance. This attests Foucault (1977) comment that Panoptic “power had to be given the instrument of permanent, exhaustive, omnipresent surveillance, capable of making all visible. It had to be like a faceless gaze that transformed the whole social body into a field of perception…” (p. 214).

2. Normalising judgement

As previously outlined in Chapter 3, the second component of disciplinary power is normalising judgment – the evaluation and correction of actions observed. The findings in Chapter 5 suggest that norms were translated to control students themselves in the classroom context (see section 5.1.1.2). It was evident that the teachers set up instructions at all times as they began lessons. In Sopin’s and Lina’s classes, the students practised the rules and a set of regulations of the class or the lesson, which meant their bodies and minds were trained so that they had self-discipline. As noted by Foucault (1977), “discipline produces subjected and practised bodies, ‘docile’ bodies” (p. 138).

As seen in Table 6.2, Sopin wrote the objectives of the lesson on the blackboard so that every student knew the lesson aims. In this way, she believed that

the students were prepared for the lessons. Sopin explained the lessons to the students, assigned tasks (e.g. reading and writing, listening and drawing), and allowed time for each task. The individual student then recognised what to do step-by-step; thus norms were established in the training of students. Normalisation not only imposes homogeneity among people, but also measures the differences between individuals (Kupfer, 2015). Further, writing the objectives demonstrated the power relations "upon the 'bodies' of teachers and students" (Gore, 1995, p. 107), with regard to the key idea noted by Carspecken (1996) that "Students should obey teachers" (p. 130).

Similarly, Lina normalised the students' behaviour through setting rules for performing tasks, such as informing students about the day's lesson activities: for instance, the 'look and write' activity, in which the students looked at pictures and spelled out vocabulary by writing under each picture. Lina closely observed the class when they were practising in the students' workbook to determine that they understood and wrote correctly. Normalising judgement was established because the students were routinely used to doing the activities; Lina determined if the students could perform the written work or not. Thus, Lina used the technique of normalisation, exposing the students to standards or norms. The students were trained to perform accepted and approved behaviours without the teacher watching them; rather, they were regulated by a set of regulations.

In addition, the findings from the analysis of interview data (Question 10, see 5.1.1.2) demonstrate that the students were subjected to multiple normalised behaviours, including doing a task and following the teacher's instruction, and reminding their peers of the teacher's instructions. It can be argued that normalisation is a useful technique of disciplinary power, in other words, it is viewed

as a means of punishment (Foucault, 1977) because any students who failed to obey school rules or classroom regulations would not achieve the indicators dictated in the *Basic Education Curriculum 2008*. Lefstein (2002) pointed out that "schools set a normative expectation for student achievement and other behaviours" (p. 1630). Students were compared, pertaining to that norm, that is, 'diligent' students are rewarded; 'lazy' students are punished (Foucault, 1977, p. 179).

At the end of each English period, Lina and Sopin asked the students what they had learned that day and reminded them to revise the lesson. The students had homework every week (e.g. in worksheets, student's workbooks). In this way, norms were established in class when each student followed the learning procedure as Gore (1998) describes, "invoking, requiring, setting, or conforming to a standard" as normalisation (p. 237). In one way, teacher-centred approaches demonstrated the teacher's exercise of authoritative power over the student's body to control their actions. However, a teacher-centred approach enabled the students to develop a sense of self-discipline to follow classroom or school norms set by the teachers.

3. Examination

In Table 6.2, Sopin and her students carried out teaching and learning activities, which were considered as evidence of pedagogies and power as "examination". Sopin tested the students' knowledge of vocabulary, e.g. meanings, spelling, and reading comprehension. Sopin observed and monitored her students' performance of writing, making some notes on her lesson plans, and decided which students needed extra help. Thus, in Foucault's words (1977), "the examination enabled the teacher, while transmitting his knowledge, to transform his pupils into a whole field of knowledge" (p. 186). In addition, the findings from interview analysis

(see 5.1.1.3, Question no. 11) show that students' English proficiency was assessed and evaluated through writing tasks and tests in Sopin's classes.

Unlike Sopin, Lina used examination techniques of disciplinary power to maintain her authoritative status and control her classes (see Table 6.2). Lina used dictation of new words and sentences to revise and check students' knowledge of English language every week. Students finished the vocabulary tests and checked the answers together with her. Lina gained knowledge of her students' writing skills by monitoring their writing ability and ranking them by score. This was related to the examination technique in the sense that students revealed their knowledge when they wrote sentences or spelled words. As Foucault (1977) observes, the examination makes the individual a 'case'. "It is the individual as he may be described, judged, measured, compared with others, in his very individuality; and it is also the individual who has to be trained or corrected, classified, normalised, …" (p. 191).

In Sopin and Lina's classes, the individual student was observed, recorded and reported on, with regard to their learning behaviours and English proficiency development based on the curriculum indicators. In this way, the teachers produced a semester report and annual report to inform the Principal about students' English proficiency and their own implementation of teaching methods. Foucault (1977) concluded that the examination is "at the centre of the procedures that constitute the individual as effect and object of power, as effect and object of knowledge" (p. 192). Thus, the examination is central to education management, which involves reports and feedback on the quality and implementation of the National Curriculum. As detailed in Chapter 3, this knowledge, documented in writing, means that the examination engages individuals "in a whole mass of documents that capture and fix them" (Foucault, 1977, p.189).

Table 6.3

Summary of findings: power and pedagogy in EFL writing classes: Pastoral power

Foucault's powers	Power Characteristics	Sopin's pedagogy implementation	Lina's pedagogy implementation
Pastoral power	Power of care that guides individuals to learn, direct themselves, behave independently through norms.	Sopin exhibited pastoral power through her teaching practices, which guided the students to write in English and develop their writing skills.	Lina established the power of care for her students when she taught writing in English. She also encouraged them to participate in writing activities.
1. Individualisation	Learn from the whole group, and then learn to produce knowledge following teacher's instruction.	Sopin used word games and songs to motivate the students to participate in the lessons. The students developed their knowledge of vocabulary, spelling, and grammar.	Lina assisted the students by giving examples of writing passages and explaining grammar rules. The students followed Lina's writing guidance to perform writing tasks by themselves.
2. Totalisation	Learn to direct themselves following class norms of learning and teaching procedure.	Sopin used group work activities to enable the students to discuss and brainstorm the ideas of writing, and learn from each other.	Lina used brainstorming and mind-mapping techniques to enable the students to work in groups. She provided steps for completing writing tasks.

Pastoral power and writing pedagogies

Table 6.3 shows the summary of findings of the relations between pastoral power and the teachers' practices of writing pedagogies, previously presented in Chapter 5. The findings reveal that Sopin and Lina used several activities and teaching strategies to encourage students to participate in EFL writing tasks. Pastoral power was exhibited in interactions between teachers and students, mediated by pedagogies implemented in Sopin and Lina's practices, which aimed to enable students to write in English.

As previously explained in Chapter 3, pastoral power works both ways. 'The individualising and totalising form' of pastoral power that defines the 'modern state' is predominantly exercised at the level of the individuals (Foucault, 1982, p. 782).

Gore (1998) defines individualisation as "giving an individual character to one person", whereas totalisation is defined as "specification of collectivises, giving collective character" to groups (p. 242). In this thesis, two sub-categories of pastoral power are examined.

1. Individualisation

In Table 6.3, Sopin motivated the students to learn English by word puzzles or word games and songs at the start of the lessons, to introduce key vocabulary, to correct spelling and pronunciation, and to prepare the students for the writing tasks later in the lesson. Sopin also created a stimulating classroom environment (see section 5.1.1.3). In terms of power relations enacted through the teacher's pedagogy, there was an exercise of pastoral power between Sopin and her students.

Sopin circulated around the classroom to assist students who needed help by explaining or guiding their ideas of topics of writing. Students performed writing tasks under Sopin's supervision, counselling, and suggestion, indicating students' self-learning behaviours. Pastoral power was exercised when the students gained knowledge of accurate spelling, vocabulary choice, and used grammar by themselves. Gore (1995, p. 178) states that individualisation means that "giving individual character to oneself or another is a common technique of power in pedagogy". However, Grade 5 and 6 students still needed guidance and controlled activities from Sopin to develop their writing skills. Thus, pastoral power was exercised over the individual student as a subject to be controlled and shaped through techniques and teaching pedagogies implemented by Sopin in order to assure the students' knowledge of writing.

In a similar way to Sopin, Lina motivated the students to develop their own vocabulary in English by using a mind-mapping technique. Students can generate

words based on a theme or topic they are interested in. They later presented their mindmaps to the class; this allowed Lina to watch her students' progress in vocabulary knowledge. However, data from observation fieldnotes and selected students' work samples showed that Lina attended to her students' English language learning needs with a different set of ways to teach vocabulary in EFL. Lina occasionally asked students to guess word meanings or translated words in Thai. Examples in Chapter 5, subsection 5.1.1, illustrated that Lina focused on vocabulary building since she believed that knowledge of vocabulary was necessary for 4th Grade students. In addition, mind-mapping was used to enhance students' writing ability in Lina's classes.

Pastoral power was exercised in Lina's classes in a form of taking care of students' learning behaviours in order to "guarantee a person's reproduction of knowledge" (Foucault, 1982, p. 783). Gore (1995) noted that individualisation is a means of control in pastoral power, guiding the students to control their "outward behaviour" and ensuring that they comprehend and do not hide any lack of understanding from the teacher. The students were confident in Lina's ability in writing, as seen from my observations that they noted down and used examples provided on the blackboard as a writing passage sample. The students showed their writing work to Lina and asked her for her opinions. Teachers as pastors need to provide suitable and appropriate teaching pedagogies to assure students are developing appropriate learning behaviours and knowledge of English language (Foucault, 1978). It was observed that in Sopin's and Lina's writing classes, pastoral power was demonstrated through techniques of individualisation, in which teachers were facilitators, guiding and assisting the students in learning writing. The students

did not feel controlled; rather, they built up habitual learning by repeatedly practising the writing activities.

2. Totalisation

Chapter 5 (see section 5.1.1.3) demonstrates that both Sopin and Lina started their classes by brainstorming, one of the activities in the pre-writing stage (Hyland, 2003). The purposes of brainstorming were to gain students' background knowledge on the specific topics, to have the students think, and to prepare them to write. In relation to pastoral power, the students controlled their own group work, while Sopin and Lina, instead of governing the class, were facilitators for developing students' writing skills. In this way, students became more confident and productive in their English language. As noted by Gore (1995), the technique of totalisation is "the specification of collectives, giving collective character, which forms a readily recognisable element of pedagogical activity" (p. 179).

From Lina's answers to Question no.16 and 17 (see Chapter 5), it was clear that she frequently practised various spelling strategies to build up students' vocabulary knowledge in order to help them write with fewer errors. Spelling practice, such as with word cards, was one of the strategies which Lina used to improve students' writing skills. Other pedagogies, such as songs, guessing games, matching words and pictures were also used to help students build up knowledge of English vocabulary to promote their writing skills. Students learned that they needed to practise spelling vocabulary or writing sentences every day in order to write in English. It can be said that drilling was one EFL teaching technique that Lina used to exercise pastoral power over her students' learning behaviour.

In contrast, in Sopin's class, question-answer techniques were used to motivate and encourage students to think. With this technique, the students discussed and

shared ideas with the teacher and among classmates. The teacher initially directed this process for the students. The students trusted the teacher as 'an expert', so they practised this pattern in their group work. The students' interactions generated pastoral power because they made question-answer patterns to share ideas and learn from one another. This whole class activity was categorised as totalisation.

Sopin's answers to Question no.16 and 17 (see Chapter 5), revealed that she noticed that the students' writing skills were improving with fewer mistakes made in spelling and vocabulary choice, although grammatical errors were still seen. Hence, she still focused on continually practising writing using various strategies and techniques to promote the students' writing ability.

To summarise, pastoral power, which was exhibited within the pedagogical practices of Lina and Sopin, unfolded in different actions, for example through teachers' directed activities, students' group work, or students' self-learning behaviours.

Table 6.4

Summary of findings: power and pedagogy in EFL writing classes: Bio-power and governmentality

Foucault's powers	Power Characteristics	Sopin's pedagogy implementation	Lina's pedagogy implementation
Bio-power and Governmentality	Governmentality, in which Foucault (1978) theorised the modality of governmental power, was placed alongside of the other modalities of pastoral power, bio-power, and disciplinary power (Lemke, 2000). Bio-power is a combination of disciplinary	Sopin used the curriculum as a tool to design the course syllabus, and implemented teaching approaches which were dictated in the curriculum to direct her classes.	Lina used curriculum indicators to design the course syllabus and adopted teaching approaches to direct her classes.

	power and pastoral power.

Bio-power, governmentality and writing pedagogies

Table 6.4 summarises the evidence in Chapter 5, which brings to the discussion an account of bio-power and governmentality. Again, in the words of Foucault (cited in Ball, 2008), governmentality is concerned with the administration of life, and utilisation of the population as a productive resource. Bio-power is relevant to the concept of disciplinary power and pastoral power. Bio-power is exercised over people in regulating their lives and governing populations, and intersects with disciplinary power (Foucault, 1990a, as cited in Taylor, 2010, pp. 41-45).

In Lina's case, her practice of teaching was related to bio-power when she wrote the objectives of the lesson on the blackboard and explained what and how to achieve the terminal objectives to the students. Lina used a technique of gaze to ensure a productive learning environment and prepared the students for the English lesson. This was considered as a practice of disciplinary power. Disciplinary power as a means for correct training enables teachers to observe, regulate, and control students' behaviours in order to enhance the students' ability in English.

Findings from interview Question no. 5 addressed bio-power (see Chapter 5), demonstrating that Lina's teaching practices were related to objectives and content, focusing on English communicative skill drills. However, the teacher-centred approach was still her main approach, together with the task-based approach, known as 3Ps or the grammar-translation approach, which was still applied in her teaching. Lina attempted to apply a learner-centred approach as much as possible.

Sopin's case revealed how bio-power was exhibited in her teaching practices. Sopin monitored the students' learning behaviours by asking about their

understanding of the lesson. The teacher's gaze or examination gaze was a technique of disciplinary power. Sopin recorded and made comments on her teaching methods, and the student results relating to curriculum indicators. In this way, Sopin was able to perceive her students' ability in learning English and learning development. Bio-power operates through some techniques of discipline, such as surveillance, examination, and regulations.

Sopin's answer to Question no. 5 illustrated that teaching and learning activities were based on the curriculum, which guides teachers to focus on students as the centre of learning activities and to promote their English proficiency. In terms of power, Sopin exercised bio-power when she applied the educational policy to the real classroom situation and adopted the learner-centred approach to design her English lessons.

Interestingly, Lina and Sopin had the same perspective of teaching practice regarding bio-power, which operated through their knowledge of the *Basic Education Core Curriculum 2008*. Lina and Sopin appropriately designed the English course syllabus to harmonise with the school's context (see subsection 5.1.3). They also performed teaching practices through setting strands and standards. The exercise of bio-power and governmentality was seen in teachers' application of principles of curriculum policy and the implementation of learning approaches presented in the curriculum. Governmentality was considered in this evidence because Lina and Sopin reproduced the control of the curriculum into their teaching practices. Bio-power means to reproduce society's standards and norms (Foucault, 1978).

Foucault (1978) discusses the idea that governmentality is about how a society thinks about governing. The Thai government manages to produce well-educated

students through the direction of school administration, curriculum policy, and teaching and learning approaches. The *Basic English Curriculum (2008)* and the *Basic Education Core Curriculum (2008)* are government education policies, which influence teachers to orient their teaching practices to the classroom in seeking to benefit students' learning.

Table 6.5

Summary of findings: power and pedagogy in EFL writing classes: Carspecken's typology of power

Carspecken's typology of power	Power Characteristics	Sopin's pedagogy implementation	Lina's pedagogy implementation
1. Normative	Subordinate consents to higher social position superordinate because of cultural norms.	Daily routines established norms for productive work. For example, students knew the rules for working in pairs, hand in marking worksheets, and were allowed to use a dictionary for unknown words. Students knew what to do even when the teacher was not in the classroom.	Peer checking was an established norm in which students always exchanged their homework, worksheets, workbook, etc. instantly; corrected answers and marked scores with minimal direct instruction from the teacher due to the established normative power of the teacher.
2. Coercive	Subordinate acts to avoid sanctions imposed by superordinate.	Students followed Sopin's instructions for fear of losing merit points (see Chapter 2). Sopin also made an agreement with the students that the names of those who did not participate in a group writing task, would not be included as group members.	Lina noticed two students quarrelling in the writing class. They fought for a comic book which was hidden in a drawer of the desk while they were assigned the task to write a short paragraph.
3. Interactively established contracts	Subordinate acts for return of favours or rewards from superordinate.	Sopin organised the students to write the answers on the blackboard by picking the students' numbers randomly. She told the students that this was a fair way.	Lina assigned writing tasks, which was using words to make 10 sentences. The students negotiated to write 5 sentences in the classroom and the other 5 for homework. Lina agreed, as she determined that this task was time-consuming for Grade 4 students.
4. Charm	A subordinate acts	Sopin said, 'Good job' to	Lina taught the class with a

	out of loyalty to the superordinate because of the latter's personality.	the boy who volunteered to answer the question in front of the classroom and patted him gently on his shoulder.	lively, enthusiastic, and a warm manner.

This section discusses Carspecken's (1996) typology of power, which is used to explain classroom interactions for the purposes of analysing teachers' pedagogical implementation, and was theorised in Chapter 3, section 3.4. Carspecken's four types of power were each observed at various times in the EFL writing classrooms in this study. The patterns of interaction in EFL classrooms allowed the researcher to understand what influenced the teachers to use or not to use overt power over their students. Thus, the relations between power and pedagogies implemented by Thai EFL teachers are compared. This section also outlines the connections between the observed classroom interactions with system relationships, such as the requirements of the national curriculum or the Thai educational system, which could lead to understanding power and pedagogies in the broader contexts of EFL writing classrooms. Each classification of power is detailed in Chapters 3 and 5.

1. Normative power

Normative power was exercised when the teacher set up the rules for writing tasks. For example, in the case of Sopin, the students knew that they must work in a group of four or five, and each group was required to nominate a group leader. Sopin told her class to write names of group members and roles as participants in a group writing assignment. Mills (2007) has observed in mainstream English classrooms in Australia that "normative statements about the right ways of acting in the classroom were used to control the social setting during negotiation process" (p. 228). Similarly, in the observed Thai classroom, Sopin established power over the Grade 5

class by claiming her normative rights as a teacher (Carspecken, 1996). The students must be obedient and respect the teacher (Carspecken, 1996; Mills, 2007).

Similarly, the use of normative power was noticed in Lina's practice of writing pedagogies. Lina taught one of the writing lessons by using vocabulary and the jigsaw technique. The jigsaw technique starts by giving each group a different topic, re-mixing groups with one, called an 'expert' on each topic, who has to teach his new group (Silberman, 1996). However, the jigsaw technique, which was adapted into Lina's writing class as a pre-writing activity, was a little different. In her classes, Lina appointed one student who was good at English as an 'expert', whose duty was to lead the group work. In Lina's writing class, the 'jigsaw technique' allowed the teacher to provide normative power to the 'expert' student. In a group, an 'expert' student was the leader who assigned each member a task, such as looking up the meanings of new words and rearranging the pictures matching with the story. The group members followed the 'expert' student's guidance because they trusted his or her English competence. Moreover, the 'expert' students were appointed by a teacher, which enabled them command the group members' obedience.

It is known that the jigsaw technique is a useful tool to teach writing (Aronson, 2000; Kessler, 1992), often implemented in EFL classrooms because it can improve students' writing skills and encourage them in cooperative learning. Students knew that when they finished the writing task, they had to exchange their work with peers to check answers. It is noted that this peer-checking is often seen in the process approach to writing. It is not a completely student-led process because students only check spelling, and punctuation marks, such as full stops and question marks.

2. Coercive power

In the Thai EFL writing classrooms, coercive power was exercised to assist teachers to control the classes by rule, including sanctions and acts of punishment (Carspecken, 1996). The practices of the two teacher participants illustrate the evidence of using coercive power in a different ways. This is shown as follows.

Sopin gained consent from her students to ensure that they did not interrupt the writing class. For fear of punishment, students avoided consequences, making sure that they did not talk to each other while studying or ignoring the teacher's explanations. However, coercive power exercised by Sopin was observed in that she made an agreement with the students that those who did not participate in a group writing task would not be listed as group members. She also spoke with a sharp and firm voice, 'Stop talking', 'Quiet' to the students (see also Chapter 5).

Similar to Sopin, Lina used coercive power to maintain her authoritative status as a teacher with low cast eyes and a loud voice. Lina said, "If you don't stop fighting, you will get out of the classroom". This happened when the students were required to write five sentences, but two quarrelling boys were fighting for a comic book. They stopped fighting and continued their writing work. Students obeyed and followed the rules set by the teacher as a class to avoid sanctions. It is important to note that teachers used coercive power by reducing points or threatening that students would fail the test (Pane, 2009). It is recommended that coercive power not be used to arrange the social space since it may "exclude certain students from accessing multiliteracies" (Carspecken, 1996, as cited in Mills, 2007, p. 239). Students still had access to the lessons, and could learn in the classroom, but were banished to the punishment area (see Chapter 5). They were still learning because in the punishment area, which was at the back of the classroom, they were seated facing

the teacher and the blackboard. Mills (2007) argued that coercive power can "implicitly maintain learners' existing levels of access to literacies as a marginalising practice of social regulation" (p. 238).

3. Interactively established contracts

It seems that interactively established contracts (see Table 6.5) were observed in Lina's classes on several occasions, since she used her charm to maintain students' focus on the English writing lessons. Her "authoritative status as a teacher" (Carspecken, 1996) with a warm and friendly manner, won the students' hearts. However, when Lina assigned writing tasks, which required the students to make ten sentences using the new words, the students negotiated with Lina to reduce the demands, asking if they could write five sentences in the classroom, and completing the other five for homework. Lina agreed to this informal 'contract', as she determined that this task was time-consuming for Grade 4 students. Due to Lina's personality, all Grade 4 students wanted to study with her and wanted to show their cooperation. For example, when Lina explained how to use Simple Past Tense to write about past events, her students listened attentively. Pane et al. (2014) assert that interactively established contracts (Carspecken, 1996) create negotiation "based on an implicit level of understanding between participants" (p. 309).

In contrast, Sopin used interactively established contracts while she organised the students to write the answers on the blackboard by randomly selecting the students' numbers on a name list. She told the students that this was a fair way, so the students gave her consent to do their writing activities, and were ready to be selected to write their answers on the blackboard. Carspecken (1996, pp. 128-130) argues that interactively established contracts as a form of power are observed in a school setting because the interactions between students and the teacher are often

seen. Pane et al. (2014) reported that when normative power did not enforce a teacher's classroom relationship expectations, the teacher established interactively established contracts "to encourage students to practise prompts for the upcoming high-stakes test by writing about what happened outside of school" (p. 315).

4. Charm

In Table 6.5, charm was generated through the teacher's verbal praise and personality. Pane et al. (2014) noted that charm comprises "culturally relevant, positive, and appropriate humour; smiling, laughing, and teasing to encourage students; and reducing social distance to show concern and care" (p. 309). Charm is considered as a type of reward (Carspecken, 1996); for example, Lina used verbal expressions of praise, such as, 'Well done!' as a reward to Student 4.1 (see subsection 5.1.1.4) because that student corrected the sentence and substituted the incorrect word 'go' with the correct word 'went'. In this way, Student 4.1 received a positive reinforcement to continue learning. Similarly, in terms of verbal approval, Sopin said, 'Good job' to the boy who volunteered to answer the question in front of the classroom, and then she patted him gently on his shoulder.

Lina taught her class with a lively, enthusiastic, and warm manner. Her students showed their cooperation and attention to the mind-mapping activity. Carspecken (1996, p. 126) argues that charm is a part of a teacher's personality, which affects the students' motivation to learn English and therefore, "the teacher gains the students' obedience".

Interestingly, Ja was willing to help Sopin clean up the blackboard. Mana offered to carry a pile of notebooks from the classroom to the teacher's room. Nook was happy with Lina's compliment on her homework, which was all correct, with neat handwriting, and clean. She said 'Thank you, teacher Lina'. These examples

confirm the exercise of charm between the teacher and students as a form of power. Mills (2007) illustrates that charm is exhibited "when a teacher praises a child for their good idea, causing a peer, who has made little contribution to a collaborative task, to start participating enthusiastically and industriously" (p. 230).

6.2 CONCLUSION

As stated in Chapter 1, an outcome of the findings will be to make a theoretical contribution to understanding how power operates in relation to EFL writing pedagogies at the Thai primary school level, with implications for the adoption of multi-strategy approaches to teaching writing, whilst promoting English communicative competence in EFL classroom contexts.

This study reveals the possibility of applying a sociocultural perspective in English language teaching to the Thai EFL writing classroom at a primary school level. Critical ethnography used in this study is useful in terms of permitting the researcher to investigate the relations between power and pedagogies – seen through classroom observations and teacher participant interviews.

The Grade 4-6 classes observed in this study were not completely regulated by the direct exercise of disciplinary power, as pedagogies were varied, and combined student-centred, whole language, and teacher-centred approaches. The regulation of social action was sometimes subtle, ingrained in the routines of classroom practices built up historically in Thai classrooms. The students' behaviour had become routinised, since surveillance by the teachers made students aware of being observed, as in the Panopticon gaze (Foucault, 1977), which did not require the direct oversight of the teacher.

In this thesis, all the power relations observed in the EFL classrooms were associated with social ideology, curriculum policy, and pedagogy. The English curriculum can be viewed as a means of generating power to control not only students but also teachers, since teachers are curriculum implementers who employ teaching approaches, while students are subject to the curriculum benchmarks. In a primary school, the specific context in which this study took place, power relations were found to be exercised by teachers and students in the writing classes. For example, while students were assigned to learn in the classroom where the teacher observed them, students then recognised that the teacher was performing the teaching job as well. This means teachers must follow school policy, work in the classroom, monitor students' learning behaviours, and create a pleasant learning environment, for example.

However, this study supplements existing understandings of power relations by providing empirical evidence detailing the influence of the cultural, social, educational, economic and globalised demands of learning English in Thai school contexts. The findings might help to increase the understanding of the importance of bio-power and governmentality in relation to educational policy, which is involved in curriculum reform, teachers' interpretation of the curriculum, pedagogy, and power.

In previous studies, Foucauldian literature (e.g. 1977; 1982; 1984) has been employed to interpret the relations between power, pedagogy, and language classrooms. However, the findings of this study confirm the empirical evidence of the existing theories of power relations and pedagogy, especially in a non-Western context at the sociocultural and socio-economic school level. It is noted that there are still unbalanced power relations when viewed through the lens of critical applied linguistics in EFL classrooms (Ruan & Ma, 2013). Future studies could shift from

focusing on linguistic features to social and cultural impacts on language learning to find ways of empowering the development of theories regarding power relations and pedagogies. Mills (2007) suggests that "cultural and linguistic diversity must be seen as a powerful classroom resource for access to literacies, not only for marginalised groups, but also for the benefit of all" (p. 240). This study has illustrated the various power mechanisms inherent in EFL pedagogies, and how these manifest in Thai classrooms.

By employing Foucault's theories of power, the findings from this critical research have clearly shown the relations between power and pedagogies in a specific Thai EFL context. Foucault's notions of power allowed the researcher to investigate the teachers' application of pedagogies which were derived from the national curriculum in a real school setting. The interpretation of data and discussion of the data yield better understandings of how power relations have potentially influenced writing pedagogies in a particular context. In terms of teaching approaches, guided by the curriculum, this study has confirmed that teachers' roles should shift from a controller, leader, or dominant power in the classroom, to a facilitator, not only in the teaching of English writing, but also in the teaching of English vocabulary and grammar. In spite of a strong Thai culture which influences teaching and learning procedures in EFL classrooms, the findings of this study have shown the importance of the relations between power exercised in didactic pedagogies and facilitating effective teaching.

Explicit power circulated in the classroom space of the two teacher participants, and there were both similarities and differences in their teaching practices. This comparison has generated understandings which are aligned to the research question of this study.

"***How is power implicated in EFL writing pedagogies in Thai primary classrooms?"***

The summary of the exercise of disciplinary power (Tables 6.1 and 6.2) has illustrated that classroom spaces are social sites (Carspecken, 1996). The discussion of the research findings has demonstrated that these teachers exhibited multiple forms of power in their pedagogies, which were examined using Foucault's principles of power (1977; 1982; 1984; 1991; 1995; 2000; 2002). Surveillance was applied through the classroom space where pedagogies were implemented by the teacher; however, students' self-surveillance was exhibited in some classroom activities (Gallagher, 2010; Hanaki, 2007; Mills, 2007; Oral, 2013). In this study, the teachers' surveillance enabled the teachers to seek appropriate classroom activities and writing pedagogies for success in EFL classes.

Disciplinary power and its techniques, called techniques of training (Foucault, 1977), were exercised in all classes. Normalising judgment is one component of establishing discipline power (Foucault, 1977); the teacher was establishing "disciplinary power over the students' bodies, and the discipline over the students' bodies leads to discipline over their minds" (Hanaki, 2007, p. 23). In this thesis, the terms 'reward' and 'coercive power' were borrowed to explain what Foucault (1977) calls 'punishment'. He states "Punishment is only one element of a double system of gratification-punishment" (p. 180), which is defined as rewards for 'good' behaviours. Grades or ranks have a double role; they rank or measure individuals and place them in a 'hierarchical system'; for 'good' or 'diligent' students, ranks are considered 'reward', while for 'bad' or 'lazy' students, ranks work as coercive punishment (Elliott, 1999; Foucault, 1977).

Disciplinary power within EFL classrooms was analysed in the research evidence, for example, the teacher's implementation of a teacher-centred approach enabled the teachers to exert the 'teacher's gaze' in a hierarchical observation over the class and individuals. In this study, the way teachers implement English writing pedagogies relates to certain types of power, which are exercised in the school and classroom.

The findings of this study seem to imply that 'power' is good thing in accordance with Foucauldian notion of power as 'enabling and constraining'. It is clear that resistance to power in the EFL classroom can be examined in different areas of research, and should not limited solely to language education. It is interesting to explore the way students exhibit a power of resistance to English language learning in classrooms and outside the classroom. For example, a student does not do his English homework at home. He does not read nor write English sentences. However, at school, he pretends to be a 'good' student, doing assigned tasks in the English classroom.

Most importantly, the use of Foucault's theories of power relations was beneficial in an interpretation of the teachers' enactment of EFL writing pedagogies in the specific EFL context of Thailand. This is because power is not an object, but a relationship (Foucault, 1982). Thus, teacher-student interaction generates particular sorts of power while teaching pedagogies are carried out. Examining pedagogical practices can offer new perspectives about the teacher, the student, and the power relationships constructed during their interactions in particular EFL contexts. This is useful for EFL teacher training since it shows how power occurs and influences each enacted pedagogy.

As seen from the findings of bio-power and governmentality analysis in this study, the EFL teachers perceived and implemented an application of teaching and learning English, based on the strands and standards of compulsory English language for the upper primary school level (Grades 4-6). On the contrary, the EFL teachers found it somewhat beneficial to the students when they carried out their EFL classes in a traditional rote teaching style, or didactic teaching. The teachers tried to instruct their English lessons with Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approaches most of the time. From the interview data analysis, it was evident that there needs to be a policy or a process by the Thai Educational Ministry to organise training sessions with relevant topics to the National English Curriculum, to recruit a sufficient number of English major EFL teachers to primary schooling, and to mandate that all Thai English teachers take EFL pedagogy courses or training workshops. These should encourage and motivate EFL teachers to develop their English pedagogical proficiency, together with their English proficiency.

From the analysis of different interactions in the EFL classrooms in this study, it could be argued that by switching L2 to L1, both teachers could create active learning environments. The use of L1 is considered a useful strategy for students to attain a better understanding of the grammar taught in the classes. Further, the teachers used L1 to address the power of coercion when they wanted to exert sanctions to stop students' undesirable behaviours. This phenomenon seems to be an important issue to seek for power of resistance. In order to clarify this point, it is important to understand that sometimes the students in the EFL classrooms waited for the teachers to use code-switching to explain topics. For example, students resisted the teacher who only used English to communicate with them. They did not

answer any questions, but when code switching was used, the students seemed to understand and to be cooperative.

6.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The present study has certain limitations that need to be taken into consideration. Although the limitations of the different research tools and techniques employed in this study were discussed in Chapter 4, a number of other factors influence the utility of the findings of this study are recognised here.

As this study only examined two teacher participants at one primary school in Thailand, the results cannot be generalised to other contexts. As previously mentioned, it was not intended that the study would provide a 'truthful' picture of all EFL classroom practices in Thailand, or power and pedagogical issues in contemporary teacher-student relationships. Rather, the study sought deep insight into particular expressions of power and pedagogy. To confirm the results of this study, this research should be replicated with more teachers at different schools and at different educational levels in various academic disciplines, but particularly in EFL contexts.

A related limitation is that while the school enrolled over 300 students, the population of students in this research was also relatively small. Also, it involved teacher participants teaching only in the upper primary school level. Similarly, the diversity between EFL instruction in Thailand and in cultural contexts worldwide cannot be assumed. Even though the researcher has made comparison of similarities and differences of pedagogies and exercises of power among the teacher participants, it is noted that cultural differences are likely to influence the transferability of the findings in terms of the precise ways in which power and pedagogies function in particular EFL contexts.

The critical ethnographic method used in this study was limited in terms of the historical perspectives and changes over time, which influence the social site, which could not be observed during the short weeks of fieldwork in this study. As Hammersley (2006) noted, ethnographers encounter a number of important issues, for example, "the issue of the spatial and temporal parameters of data collection and the nature of socio-cultural phenomena, how context should be taken into account, what can and cannot be inferred from particular sorts of data, and issues about the very purpose of ethnographic work" (p. 11). Hammersley (2006) also illustrates that short time periods in which ethnographers "study only parts of people's lives lead to problems of sampling and generalisation of data" (p. 6).

This study focused solely on investigating the relationship between power relations and EFL writing pedagogies. Further relevant research should also take into account particular writing pedagogies in different EFL contexts and how these interact with the operation of different types of power.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations directly drawn from this study contribute to theory and practice changes, future research, and educational policy, in Thailand and elsewhere where similar EFL teaching challenges occur.

Recommendations for Theory

The findings of this study have clearly shown that Foucault's conceptions of power can be applied to examine what forms of power and how such forms of power are exercised in relation to pedagogies in the EFL classroom. For instance, power conceptions can be used by researchers to conduct studies in relation to discourses and disciplinary power. As Lefstein (2002) draws on Foucault to argue that power

"does not have to be actively and consciously exercised by the teachers"; rather, power "is distributed throughout the school structure, in the minute details of spatial, temporal, and organisational arrangements" (p. 1631). As Baildon (2008) observes, schooling is viewed as "central to training students in skills, knowledge", and is considered "necessary to compete in a globalised and post-industrial work force" (p. 132). Seen through Foucault's theory of power, not only teacher and student interactions, but also texts, discourse, curriculum documents, spatial arrangement of classroom furniture and people, as well as pedagogies, can be analysed regarding power, which circulates in their relationships.

As this study has observed, traditional methods of teaching and learning currently dominate teaching and learning practice in Thai primary schools. Examining how power operates and is constituted in the system enables practitioners to move beyond a teacher dictated and controlled environment to being a facilitator. For example, Lina exerted pastoral power and disciplinary power in her writing classrooms by setting up the writing activities, which required students to work in a group. These activities enabled the students to brainstorm, discuss, and write a story in English. Lina acted as a facilitator rather than a didactic teacher in these activities.

Additionally, coercive power which a teacher uses, such as shame, punishment, and guilt, is intended to produce teacher influence over the students (Foucault, 1977). On the other hand, students might reject the coercive claim through resistance. The teacher needs to apply other forms of power, such as interactively established contracts and normative power (Carspecken, 1996). Incorporating power as "a set of relations" (Foucault, 1980, p. 198), and active orientation towards pastoral power, enables teachers to understand forms of power in their actions, which impact teaching instructions.

Recommendations for Practice

A recommendation for practice is that teachers in Thailand or other similar EFL contexts should make changes in their teaching methods, which seems currently to be governed by the overt use of disciplinary power. For example, based on the findings in Chapter 5, power is not always exercised by the teachers; rather, in some instances (5.1.4), the students demonstrated resistance of power to the teachers in the EFL classrooms. For instance, the strict classroom routine enforced by the teacher resulted in student resistance. This challenged the authority of the teachers and prevented the students from learning English.

Based on data analysis, this study has revealed that the relations between power and pedagogies should be clearly explained to teachers, such as the use of space and time in the classroom, surveillance, disciplinary techniques, and pastoral power. Government and education stakeholders could consider that power relations influence pedagogical practices. As Gore (1995) argued, power functions in schools and cultural and social practices according to how the teacher regulates student behaviour in the classroom. Therefore, it is necessary to make explicit the relations between power and pedagogies to teachers.

Further, mentoring should address "control issues and the interrelationship between instructional and disciplinary" decisions of teachers (Winograd, 2002 as cited in Lefstein, 2002, p. 1649). Based on the findings of this study, understanding power would assist EFL teachers to understand unequal power relations. Therefore, instead of teachers having overt or dominant power and viewing students as subjects to be controlled, teachers will see students as critical agents, able to exert change and influence, and able to interrogate the messages that they read in English texts.

In terms of practice, a deeper understanding of power would enable teachers to develop learning resources and worksheets that engage students in peer learning and stimulate a deeper facilitative process for the teacher. If teachers see power as a set of relations, there would be a major change in terms of lesson plans, which are more likely to allow students to engage in a learner-centred activity.

Recommendations for Policy

A recommendation for policy is significant within the context of current education legislation. According to the Ministry of Education Thailand, EFL teachers are required to implement the *Basic English Core Curriculum* 2008. Thai Teachers of English always negotiate the application of language policy in their classrooms whilst coping with unsteady educational policies, benchmarks, time limitations, syllabus designs, and so on. Based on the findings of this study, many examples suggest that teacher participants struggled to apply the learner-centred approach as required in the curriculum; however, they found that sometimes other approaches were more efficient (e.g. direct instruction). It was obvious from the findings of this study that what teachers enacted in classroom situations required higher levels of assistance from the system for teachers to cope with new curriculum requirements and philosophical shifts behind the approaches described in the curriculum.

It should be noted that teachers should explore and discuss their own teaching experiences because it is teachers who 'perform' the use and the practice of policy. This could contribute not only to the teacher professional development in Thailand, but to government policy changes. That means the Ministry of Education Thailand should consider training courses or seminars for Thai teachers of English and pre-service teachers at universities, which can be applied to authentic classroom

teaching. It is recommended that policy needs to be explicitly focused on learner-centred pedagogies.

Recommendations for Research

Given that English is important today and will continue to be in the future, more critical research on the impact that power relations have in various EFL contexts needs to be conducted. Thus, it is recommended that there should be substantial research through regular studies. For example, in the EFL class, it is important to use reward power to maintain the social relationship between students' motivation in learning English language and the teachers' practice (see Chapter 5). As Foucault (1977) points out, "the teacher must avoid, as far as possible, the use of punishment; on the contrary, he (the teacher) must endeavour to make rewards more frequent than penalties" (p. 180).

On the other hand, charm is a positive reinforcement to gain students' willingness to learn English language, and also enables teachers to recognise students' efforts to learn English. For example, in this study, the findings (5.1.1.4) demonstrate how encouragement and praise resulted in positive reinforcement in the EFL classroom. For example, by using gestures to designate acceptance and respect, such as teachers nodding when they agree with students, students realise that the teacher approves of their behaviours (Carspecken, 1996).

Based on the discussion of this study, it is recommended that there should be research investigating "charm", which is recognised as one of the interactive forms of power in teacher and student classroom interaction. Future research, alternatively, might involve the study of "charm" and how teachers embody this type of power in their EFL classrooms.

6.5 SUMMARY

The researcher conducted this study at QUT, which has involved one PhD candidate from the East struggling to learn research methods and theories from the west. This led to the difficulty of contextualising of the literature, which was relevant to Foucault's power theories, EFL pedagogies, and critical ethnography. In this sense, this study is complex in terms of employing theories from the West to conduct research in Thai (Eastern) EFL classrooms. The findings from this study have shown important evidence of how power inherent in the English language in a 'foreign' context influences students and teachers in this particular environment. The analysis and discussion of the data illustrated how different sorts of power are exercised in the interactions of teachers and students. Further, the discussion revealed who held what forms of power over others. While this study highlights that different forms of power are implicated in teachers' pedagogies, several particular perspectives for consideration are proposed for future research in relevant areas. However, this study potentially confirmed that applying Foucault's theories of power, developed from French philosophy, can be used as a lens to analyse the set of data within the particular context of Thai EFL schooling, and can yield research significance. This study might provide benefits to teachers, academics, and researchers who are interested in conducting research studies with young English language students in particular EFL contexts.

References

Aksornkool, N. (1985). *A history study of language planning*. Singapore: Singapore University Press for Regional Language Centre.

Al-Khasawneh, S.M.F. (2010). Writing for Academic Purposes: Problems Faced by Arab Postgraduate Students of the College of Business. *ESP World*, *9*(2), 28. Retrieved from http://www.esp-world.info

Algarin-Ruiz, K. M. (2014). *Code Switching: A Tool in the Classroom*. Education and Human Development Master's Theses. 393. Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.brockport.edu/ehd_theses/393

Ampra, K. & Thaithae, C. (2000). Thailand: curriculum planning, development and reform', in *Globalization and living together: the challenges for educational content in Asia* (Final report of the sub—regional course on curriculum development), New Delhi, India, 9–17 March 1999, UNESCO, Paris, 126–130. www.ibe.unesco.org/curriculum/Asia%20Networkpdf/ndrepth.pdf

Anderson, G. L., & Grinberg, J. (1998). Educational Administration as a Disciplinary Practice: Appropriating Foucault's View of Power, Discourse, and Method. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *34*(3), 329-353. *DOI: 10.1177/0013161x98034003004*

Aronson, E. (2000). Jigsaw Classroom. http://www.jigsaw.org/index.html

Athanases, S. Z.& Heath, S.B. (1995). Ethnography in the study of the teaching and learning of English. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *29* (3), 263-287.

ATIGA. (2007). Asean Trade In Goods Agreement. Retrieved fromhttp://www.miti.gov.my/cms/content.jsp?id=com.tms.cms.bookmark.Bookmark_5c6f86e6-c0a81573-67896789-7b1b9ff0

Avasadanond, B. (2002). *The dark side of English language education in Thailand.* The Bangkok Post Learning Post. October 8-14 2002.

Badger, R, G. & White, B. (2000). A process genre approach to teaching writing. *ELT Journal*, 54(2), 153-160.

Baker, L. (2016). Re-conceptualizing EFL Professional Development: Enhancing communicative language pedagogy for Thai teachers. *TEFLIN Journal*, *27* (1), January 2016. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v27i1/23-45*

Baker, W. (2012). English as a lingua franca in Thailand: Characterizations and implications. In Baird, R., Kitazawa, M., Lee, H. Y., & Wang, Y. (Eds.), *Englishes in Practice: Working Papers of the Center for Global Englishes,*18-27. University of Southampton.

Baker, W. (2009). The cultures of English as a lingua franca. *TESOL Quarterly*, 567-592.

Baker, W. (2008). A Critical Examination of ELT in Thailand The Role of Cultural Awareness. *RELC journal*, *39*(1), 131-146.

Bakhtin, M. (1986). The problem of speech genres. In C. Emerson & M. Holquist (Eds.) & V. McGee (Trans.), *Speech genres and other late essays*, 60-101. Austin, TX: University of Texas Press.

Balan, S. (2010). Foucault's View on Power Relations, Cogito: *Multidisciplinary Research Journal*, *2* (2), 55-61, June, 2010.

Baldauf, R. B., & Moni, K. (2006). Learner-centeredness in Teaching English as a Foreign Language. *Thai TESOL International Conference*, Chiang Mai, Thailand.

Ball, S. J. (2012). *Foucault, power, and education*. Routledge.

Barkaoui, K. (2007). Revision in Second Language Writing: What Teachers Need to Know. *TESL Canada Journal, 25*(1), 81 - 92. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v25i1.109

Barnard, R., & Campbell, L. (2005). Sociocultural theory and the teaching of process writing: The scaffolding of learning in a university context. *The TESOLANZ Journal, 13*, 76-88.

Barnard, R., & McLellan, J. (2014). Introduction. In R. Barnard, & J. McLellan (Eds.), *Codeswitching in University English-Medium Classes: Asian Perspectives*, (pp. 1-9). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

Berg, B. L., & Lune, H. (2004). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*, (5). Boston: Pearson.

Berns, M. (2005). Expanding on the expanding circle: Where do WE go from here? *World Englishes*, 24(1), 85-93.

Biyaem, S. (1997). *Learner training: Changing roles for a changing world*, Educational Innovation for Sustainable Development. 3rd UNESCO-ACEID International Conference, Bangkok.

Boriboon, P. (2011). Language, ideology and domination: Problems of English language teaching in Thailand and solutions. Songklanakarin Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities, 17(6), 23–59

Bowers, C. A., & Flinders, D. J. (1990). *Responsive Teaching: An Ecological Approach to Classroom Patterns of Language, Culture, and Thought*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. (2nd ed.), New York: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.

Bruton, A. (2005). Process Writing and Communicative-Task-Based Instruction: Many Common Features, but More Common Limitations? *TESL-EJ*. *9*(3):1-31.

Buehl, D. (2001). Classroom strategies for interactive learning (2nd ed.). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Burns, A. (2005). Interrogating new worlds of English language teaching, in Burns, A., ed. (2005). *Teaching English from a global perspective* (Alexandria, VA: TESOL).

Buzan, T. & Buzan, B. (1995). The mind map book. London: BBC Books.

Byram, M., Gribkova, B., & Starkey, H. (2002). Developing the intercultural dimension in language teaching: a practical introduction for teachers [Electronic Version]. Retrieved from http://www.lrc.cornell.edu/director/intercultural.pdf

Canagarajah, A. S. (2008). The Politics of English Language Teaching. In Stephen May (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Language and Education*. 1, Language Policy and Political Issues in Education. Heidelberg, Germany: Springer, 213-228.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2007). Lingua franca English, multilingual communities and language acquisition. *The modern Language Journal*, 91(5), 923-939.

Canagarajah, A. S. (1999). Resisting linguistic imperialism in English teaching. Oxford University Press.

Canagarajah, A. S. (1993). Critical ethnography of a Sri Lankan classroom: Ambiguities in student opposition to reproduction through ESOL. *TESOL Quarterly*, *27*(4), 601-626.

Carspecken, P.F. (1996). Critical ethnography in education research: A theoretical and practical guide. New York: Routledge.

Caudery, T. (1997). Process writing. In G. Fulcher (Ed). *Writing in the English Language Classroom.* U.K: Prentice Hall.

Certomà, C. (2015). Expanding the 'dark side of planning': Governmentality and biopolitics in urban garden planning. *Planning Theory*, *14*(1), 23-43.

Cervetti, G., Pardales, M., & Damico, J. (2001). A Tale of Differences: Comparing the Traditions, Perspectives, and Educational Goals of Critical Reading and Critical Literacy. *Reading Online*. 4 (9). http://www.readingonline.org/articles/cervetti/

Chatranonth, P. (2008). The impact of teacher feedback on students' grammatical writing accuracy: A case study in Thailand. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Manchester, Manchester.

Chayanuvat, A. (2003). English learning experiences of Thai students enrolled at a university: A case study. In J. Hull, J. Harris and P. Darasawang (Eds), *Researching ELT: Proceedings of the International Conference*,1-13. King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi, Thailand.

Chayarathee, S & Waugh, R. F (2006). Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Grade 6 students in Thailand: cooperative learning versus Thai communicative method. In Engagement and empowerment: new opportunities for growth in higher education : EDU-COM 2006 conference proceedings, 22nd - 24th November 2006.

Cheewakaroon, R. (2011). *Teaching change in response to Thai tertiary English language teaching reform* . Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Wollongong.

Chen, G. M. (2012). The impact of new media on intercultural communication in global context. *China Media Research*, *8*(2), 1–10.

Cheng, Y. Y. (1998). Adapted whole language teaching in an English class in junior high school. Unpublished Master's thesis. Kaohsiung Normal University, Taiwan.

Chinawong, S. (1999-2000). Academic writing ability of Thai college students majoring science at Chulalongkorn University. *Warasarn Paasa Praritat (Journal of Vision of Language), 18,* 10-27.

Chong, F. H. (2002). Children writing in English in the Singapore upper primary school: A case study of six 12-year-old students. LING 201: Linguistic Methodology Department of Linguistics and Modern English Language, Lancaster University.

Choomthong, D. (2014). Preparing Thai Students' English for the ASEAN Economic Community: Some Pedagogical Implications and Trends. *LEARN Journal: Language Education And Acquisition Research Network, 7*(1), 45-57. Retrieved from http://164.115.22.25/ojs222/index.php/LEARN/article/view/268

Chowdhury, N. (2012). Classroom code switching of English language teachers at tertiary level: A Bangladeshi perspective. *Stamford Journal of English.* 7, 40-61.

Christie, F. (1984). Section 1: Varieties of written discourse. In F. Christie (1984) (Ed). *Children Writing.* ECT418 Language Studies, Study Guide. Geelong: Deakin University Press.

Chuenchaichon, Y. (2014). A review of EFL writing research studies in Thailand in the past 10 years. *Journal of Humanities, 11*(1), 13-30.

Chuendaechum, C. (1999). *Effects of using instructional process based on Vygotsky's zone of proximal development on Thai language skills and self-regulation of lower secondary school students.* Unpublished dissertation, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand.

Chulalongkron University Language Center. (2000). *The Reform of the English syllabus in the general education curriculum in Thai university,* Bangkok.

Clapham, A. (2015). Producing the docile body: analysing Local Area Under-performance Inspection (LAUI). *Cambridge Journal of Education,* 45(2), 265-280. doi: 10.1080/0305764X.2014.955837

Coffey, A., B. Holbrook & P. Atkinson (1996). Qualitative Data Analysis: Technologies and Representations, *Sociological Research Online, 1*(1), Retrieved from <http://www.socresonline.org.uk/1/1/4.html>.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (5th ed.). London: Routledge Falmer.

Cotterall, S., & Cohen, R. (2003). Scaffolding for second language writers: producing an academic essay. *ELT Journal, 57*(2), 158-166. Retrieved from http://eltj.oxfordjournals.org/content/57/2/158.abstract. *DOI:10.1093/elt/57.2.158*

Cousins, M. & Hussain, A. (1984). Michel Foucault, London. Macmillan Publishers Limited.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determine validity in qualitative inquiry. Theory into Practice, 39(3), 124-130.

Creswell, J. W. & Miller, D. L. (2010). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches (3rd ed.) Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska.

Crystal, D. (2003). English as a global language. 2nd ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Crystal, D. (2012). English as a Global Language (2nd edn). Cambridge: Canto Classics.

Cumming, A. (1995). Fostering writing expertise in ESL composition instruction: Modeling and evaluation. In D. Belcher & G. Braine (Eds.), *Academic writing in a second language* (pp. 375-397). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Co.

Cummins, J., & Swain, M. C. (1986). Bilingualism in education: Aspects of theory, research, and practice. London, England: Longman.

Danaher, G., Schirato, T., & Webb, J. (2000). *Understanding Foucault* Retrieved from http://QUT.eblib.com.au/patron/FullRecord.aspx?p=258703

Darasawang, P. (2007). English language teaching and education in Thailand: A decade of change. In N. D. Prescott (Eds.), *English in Southeast Asia: Varieties, literacies and literatures,*187-204. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Darasawang, P., & Watson Todd, R. (2012). The effect of policy on English language teaching at secondary schools in Thailand. *English in Southeast Asia: Features, policy and language in use*, *42*.

Dawid, D. (2004). A Whole Language Approach for Foreign Language Writing Using Computers. Unpublished Dissertation. Stony Brook University, New York.

Deacon, R. (2006). Michel Foucault on education: a preliminary theoretical overview. *South African Journal of Education*, *26*(2), 177-187.

Dean, M. (1999). 1999: Governmentality: power and rule in modern society. London: Sage. elementary school in the United States. *Childhoods Today, 5*(2)

Deerajviset, P. & Harbon, L. (2014). E-learning in EFL education in Thailand's higher education: The role for lecturers making it work. *University of Sydney Papers in TESOL*, 9, 37-63. <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.resp.2012.09.001">

Deerajviset, P. (2014). The ASEAN Community 2015 and English language teaching in Thailand.

Derderian-Aghajanian, A., & Cong, W. C. (2012). How culture affects on English Language Learners' (ELL' s) outcomes , with Chinese and Middle Eastern

immigrant students. *International Journal of Business and Social Sciences, 3*(5), 172–180.

Derewianka, B. (1990). *Exploring how texts work.* Sydney: Primary English Teaching Association.

Dhanarattigannon, J. (2008). *Thai college students' response to non-traditional writing instruction in a Thai university*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Florida.

Dhanasobhon, S. (2006). English Language Teaching Dilemma in Thailand. Retrieved from http://www.curriculumandinstruction.org/index.php?lay =show&ac=article &Id=539134523&Ntype=7.

DiCicco-Bloom, B., & Crabtree, B. F. (2006). The qualitative research interview. *Medical Education, 40*(4), 314-321. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2929.2006.02418.x

Divaharan, S., & Atputhasamy, L. (2002). An attempt to enhance the quality of cooperative learning through peer assessment. *Journal of Educational Enquiry, 3*(2), 72-83.

Dixon, J & Tuladhar, S. (1996). Whole Language: An Integrated approach to Reading and writing. *Action-Learning Manuals for Adult Literacy: A Guide for Literacy Practitioners*. Amherst, MA : The Center for Internasional Education, University of Massachusetts, 1996.

Dreyfus, H. L., & Rabinow, P. (1983). Michel foucault: Beyond structuralism and hermeneutics (2nd ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Dueraman, B. (2012). Teaching EFL writing: Understanding and re-thinking the Thai experience. *Journal of Alternative Perspectives in the Social Sciences, 4*(1), 255-275.

Dugan, J. A. R., Linder, P. E., Sampson, M. B., Brancato, B. A., & College Reading, A. (2004). *Celebrating the Power of Literacy. The Twenty-Sixth Yearbook: A Peer Reviewed Publication of The College Reading Association [Papers from the College Reading Association Conference, 2004]*: College Reading Association.

Duke, N., & Mallette, M. H. (2012). *Literacy Research Methodologies, Second Edition*. Retrieved from http://QUT.eblib.com.au/patron/FullRecord.aspx?p=670166

Dunbar, R. (2009). Finding their way: A critical ethnography of five African American Women educators' early experiences to develop into culturally relevant pedagogues. (Doctoral dissertation) Retrieved from http://www.scholarworks.gsu.edu/ece_diss/7

Durgunoglu, A.Y. & Verhoeven, L. (1998). Multilingualism and literacy development across different cultures. In A.Y. Durgunoglu & L. Verhoeven (Eds). Literacy development in a multilingual context: A cross cultural perspective. 289-298. Erlbaum.

Durongphan, M., Aksornkool, N., Sawangwong, W. & Tiancharoen, S. (1982). *The development of English teaching in Thailand: A Rattanakosin experience*. Bangkok: Aksorn Charoentat for Thai/TESOL.

Dyson, M. E. (1993). Reflecting Black: African-American cultural criticism. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Eapen, L. (2007). English Next. *ELT Journal, 61*(1), 81-83. Retrieved from http://eltj.oxfordjournals.org/content/61/1/81.short. *DOI:10.1093/elt/ccl050*

Ekachai, S. (1999). Not a very nice move. Bangkok, The Bangkok Post. January 2.

Elliott, J. (1999). Sustainable society and environmental education: future perspectives and demands for the educational system. *Cambridge Journal of Education*. 29 (3), 325-341.

Ellis, S., & McCartney, E. (2011). *Applied Linguistics and Primary School Teaching : Developing a Language Curriculum.* Retrieved from http://QUT.eblib.com.au/patron/FullRecord.aspx?p=691889

Fendler, L. (2010). Continuum Library of Educational Thought. 22. 43-47. Richard Bailey, (Series Ed.) London: Continuum Press.

Fernsten, L. A. (2008). Writer Identity and ESL Learners. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 52*(1), 44-52.

Ferris, D. R., & Hedgcock, J. (2013). *Teaching L2 Composition: Purpose, Process, and Practice* Retrieved from http://QUT.eblib.com.au/patron/FullRecord.aspx?p=1434037

Fitzpatrick, D. (2011). *Making sense of English language policy in Thailand: An exploration of teachers' practices and dispositions*. Thesis (PhD). University of Exeter.

Foley, J. A. (2005). English . . . in Thailand. *RELC Journal, 36*(2), 223-234. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0033688205055578

Foley, J. A. (2013). Developing academic writing in a business-oriented university. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 2(2), 168-186.

Ford, M. (2003). Unveiling technologies of power in classroom organization practice. *The Journal of Educational Foundations, 17*(2), 5.

Forman, R. (2005). *Teaching EFL in Thailand: a bilingual study*. Faculty of Education. University of Technology, Sydney.

Forman, R. (2007). Bilingual Teaching in the Thai EFL Context: One Teacher's Practice, *TESOL in Context,* 16(2), pp. 19-24.

Forman, R. (2008). Using notions of scaffolding and intertextuality to understand the bilingual teaching of English in Thailand. *Linguistics and Education, 19*(4), 319-332.

Forman, R. (2010). Ten principles of bilingual pedagogy in EFL. In A. Mahboob (Ed.), *The NNEST lens: Non-native English speakers in TESOL,* pp. 54-86. Newcastle, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Forman, R. (2012). Six functions of bilingual EFL teacher talk: animating, translating, explaining, creating, prompting and dialoguing. *RELC Journal*, 43, 239-53. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0033688212449938

Forman, R. (2015). When EFL teachers perform L2 in the classroom, what happens to their sense of self?. *TESL-EJ*. 19(2). www.tesl-ej.org/pdf/ej74/a2.pdf

Foucault, M. (1972). *The Archaeology of Knowledge.* (A.M. Sheridan Smith, Trans.). New York: Pantheon Books.

Foucault, M. (1977). Discipline and Punish, Panopticism. In A. Sheridan (Ed.), *Discipline & Punish: The Birth of the Prison* (pp. 195-228). New York: Vintage Books.

Foucault, M. (1978/2002). Interview with Michel Foucault. In J. Faubion (Ed.) *Michel Foucault: power. Essential works of Foucault 1954-1984. 3.* London: Penguin. 239-297.

Foucault, M. (1979). *Discipline and punish*. Harmondsworth: Peregrine.

Foucault, M. (1980b). Two Lectures. In C. Gordon (Ed.), *Power/Knowledge: Selected Interviews & Other Writings 1972-1977.* 78-108. New York: Pantheon Foucault, M. (1982). *The Subject and Power*. Critical Inquiry, 8(4). 777-795. Published by: The University of Chicago Press Stable URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/1343197 .Accessed: 06/01/2014 21:34.

Foucault, M. (1980). *Power/knowledge: Selected interviews and other writings*. New York: Pantheon.

Foucault, M. (1981). *The history of sexuality: An introduction*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Foucault, M. (1982). The Subject and Power. *Critical Inquiry*, *8*(4), 777-795. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/1343197. doi:10.2307/1343197

Foucault, M (1982) Space, knowledge and power, in: P. Rabinow (Ed.) The Foucault reader: an introduction to Foucault's thought (London, Penguin).

Foucault, M. (1982). The subject and power: Afterword to. In H. Dreyfus & P. Rabinow (Eds.), *Michel Foucault: Beyond structuralism and hermeneutics*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Foucault, M. (1983). The Subject and Power. In H. Dreyfus & P. Rabinow (Eds.), *Michel Foucault: Beyond Structuralism and Hermeneutics*. 2 ed., 208-226. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Foucault, M. (1984b/1996). The concern for truth. In S. Lotringer (Ed.) *Foucault live: collected interviews, 1961-1984.* New York: Semiotext(e). 455-464.

Foucault, M. (1984). Neitzsche, genealogy, history. In P. Rabinow (Ed.), *The Foucault reader*. London: Peregrine.

Freeman, R. (1993). The Importance of Participant Role in Cooperative Learning. *9* (1), Retrieved from http://repository.upenn.edu/wpel/vol9/iss1/1

Freeman, D. & Freeman, Y. (1994). Whole language principles for bilingual learners. In Alan D. Flurkey and Richard J. Meyer (Eds.). Under the Whole Language Umbrella: Many Cultures, Many Voices. 240-263. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.

French, J., & Raven, B. H. (1959). The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright (Ed.), Studies in social power (150-167). Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for Social Research.

Gabrielatos, C. (2002). EFL writing: Product and process. ERIC, ED476839. www.gabrielatos.com/Writing.pdf

Gallagher, M. (2011). Sound, space and power in a primary school, *Social and Cultural Geography*, *12*(1), 47-61. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14649365.2011.542481

Gallagher, M. (2010). Are schools panoptic?. *Surveillance and Society*, *7*(3/4), 262-272 http://library.queensu.ca/ojs/index.php/surveillance-and-society/article/view/4155

García, O. (2014). Multilingualism and language education. In C. Leung & B. V. Street (eds.), The Routledge Companion to English Studies. New York: Routledge.

Gastaldo, D. (1996). Is health education good for you? Rethinking health education through the concept of bio-power. In: Petersen, A., Bunton, R. (Eds.), *Foucault, Health and Medicine*. Routledge, London, 113–133.

Gebhard, J. G. (2006). *Teaching English as a foreign or Second Language* (2nd ed.). Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.

Gebhard, J. G. (2009). *Teaching English as a Foreign or second language: a teacher self-developent and methodology guide* (2 ed.): The University of Michigan Press.

Gee, J.P. (1996). *Social linguistics and literacies: Ideology in discourses*, Second Edition. London: Routledge/Taylor & Francis.

Gee, J. P. (1999). *An introduction to discourse analysis: Theory and method*. London: Routledge.

Georgiou, D., & Carspecken, P. F. (2002). Critical Ethnography and Ecological Psychology: Conceptual and Empirical Explorations of a Synthesis. *Qualitative Inquiry*, *8*(6), 688-706. Retrieved from http://qix.sagepub.com/content/8/6/688. abstract. *DOI:10.1177/1077800402238074*

Geringer, J. (2003). Reflections on professional development: Toward high-quality teaching and learning. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 84 (5), 373.

Gerot, L. & Wignell, P. (1994). *Making sense of functional grammar.* Sydney: Antipodean Educational Enterprises.

Gill, S. K. (1999). Standards and emerging linguistic realities in the Malaysian workplace. *World Englishes, 18*(2), 215-231.

Glass, K. T. (2005). *Curriculum design for writing instruction*. California: Corwin.

Glass, T. E. (2008). *The nature of English writing done by graduates of a university in Thailand*. Doctoral dissertation, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana.

Gómez Lobatón, J. C. (2012). Language learners' identities in EFL settings: resistance and power through discourse. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 14*, 60-76. Retrieved from http://www.scielo.org.co/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S0123-46412012000100005&nrm=iso.

Goodman, Y. M. (1991). Beginning to read: A critique by literacy professionals and a response by Marylin Jager Adams. *The Reading Teacher*, 44, 375-378.

Goodman, K. S., Bird, L. B., & Goodman, Y. M. (1992). *The whole language catalog supplement on authentic assessment*. Glencoe/McGraw-Hill School Publishing Company.

Gore, J. M. (1997). On the Use of Empirical Research for the Development of a Theory of Pedagogy. *Cambridge Journal of Education, 27*(2), 211-221. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0305764970270205. *DOI:10.1080/0305764970270205*

Gore, J. M. (1998). Disciplining bodies: on the continuity power relations in pedagogy. In T. S. Popkewitz & M. Brenman (Eds.), *Foucault's challenge: discourse, knowledge, and power in education.* pp. 231–251. New York: Teachers College Press.

Gore, J.M. (2002). Some certainties in the uncertain world of classroom practice: An outline of a theory of power relations in pedagogy. Conference Proceedings: the Annual Meeting of the Australian Association for Research in Education, Brisbane, December 2 – 5.

Gore, J. (1995). On the continuity of power relations in pedagogy. *International Studies in the Sociology of Education, 5*(2), 165-188.

Graddol, D. (2006). English next: Why global English may mean the end of English as a foreign language. Retrieved from http://www.britishcouncil.org/learning-research-english-next.pdf)

Graham, S. (2011). Comics in the Classroom: Something to Be Taken Seriously. *Teaching Practice.* Khon Kaen University International College, Thailand. Retrieved from http://www.camtesol.org/Download/LEiA_Vol2_Iss1_2011/LEiA_V2_I1_07_Steven_Graham_Comics_in_the_Classroom_Something_to_be_Taken_Seriously.pdf

Graham, S. (2010). EIL in the Primary Classroom: Exploration and innovation using DVDs for communication. *Journal of Asia Pacific Studies, 1*(3), 506-523.

Graham, L. J. (2011). The Product of Text and 'Other' Statements: Discourse analysis and the critical use of Foucault. *Educational Philosophy and Theory, 43*(6): 663-674.

Hall, W. A. & Vandenberg, H. E. R. (2011). Critical ethnography: extending attention to bias and reinforcement of dominant power relations. *Nurse Researcher, 18*(25).

Halliday, M.A.K. (1961) "Categories of the theory of grammar". Word 17. Reprinted in Halliday, M.A.K. and Jonathan Webster (2002) On Grammar (Collected Works of M.A.K. Halliday, Vol. 1). Edited by Jonathan Webster. Continuum.

Hamilton, M. (1999). Ethnography for classrooms: constructing a reflective curriculum for literacy, Pedagogy, Culture & Society, *7*(3), 429-444, *DOI: 10.1080/14681369900200074*

Hammersley, M. (2006). Ethnography: problems and prospects. *Ethnography and education, 1*(1), 3-14.

Hammond, J. (1987). An overview of the genre approach to the teaching of writing in Australia. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, 10*, 163-181.

Hammond, J. et al (1992). English for social purposes: A handbook for teachers of adult literacy. Sydney: NCELTR, Macquarie University.

Hanaki, T. (2007). An ethnographic interpretation of disciplinary power within the EFL classroom. *On Cue Journal*, *1*(1), 19-29.

Hartshorn, K. J., Evans, N. W., Merrill, P. F., Sudweeks, R. R., Strong-Krause, D., & Anderson, N. J. (2010). Effects of Dynamic Corrective Feedback on ESL Writing Accuracy. *TESOL Quarterly*, *44*(1), 84-109. *DOI: 10.5054/tq.2010.213781*

Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research, 77*, 81–112.

Hayes. D. (2008). Becoming a teacher of English in Thailand. *Language Teaching Research*, 12 (4), 471-494.

Huang, Y. (1998). On Deficiency of Critical Thinking Skills. *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, (7), 1-19.

Heath, S. (1983). *Ways with words: Language, life, and work in communities and classrooms*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Heller, K. J. (1996). Power, subjectification and resistance in Foucault. *SubStance, 25*(1), 78-110.

Heyneman, S. P., & Loxley, W. A. (1983). The Effect of Primary-School Quality on Academic Achievement Across Twenty-nine High- and Low-Income Countries. *American Journal of Sociology, 88*(6), 1162-1194. *DOI: 10.2307/2778968*

Hinkel, E. L. I. (2006). Current Perspectives on Teaching the Four Skills. *TESOL Quarterly, 40*(1), 109-131. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/40264513. *DOI:10.2307/40264513*

Ho, L. (2000). Hong Kong writing and writing Hong Kong. *World Englishes, 19*(3), 381-386.

Hodge, B. Kress, G. & Jones, G. (1979). The ideology of middle management. In R. Fowler. *Language and control.* London, 81-93.

Hoffman, L. M. (2010). Patriotic professionalism in urban China: Fostering talent. Temple University Press.

Holley, D., & Oliver, M. (2010). Student engagement and blended learning: Portraits of risk. *Computers & Education, 54*(3), 693-700. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2009.08.035*

Holliday, A. (1995). Assessing language needs within an institutional context: An ethnographic approach. *English for Specific Purposes, 14*(2), 115-126. Retrieved from http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/088949069500006D. *DOI:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0889-4906(95)00006-D*

Honna, N. (2005). English as a multicultural language in Asia and intercultural literacy. *Intercultural Communication Studies*, *14*(2), 73–89.

Hope, A. (2005). Panopticism, play and the resistance of surveillance: case studies of the observation of student Internet use in UK schools, *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 26:3, 359-373, DOI: 10.1080/01425690500128890

Howley, A. and Hartnett, R. (1992), Pastoral power and the contemporary university: A Foucauldian analysis. *Educational Theory*, 42, 271–283. doi:10.1111/j.1741-5446.1992.00271.x

Hsieh, M. (2006). *"My mom makes me to learn English": Power, system, instruction and quality of early childhood English language education in Taiwan* (Order No. 3232577). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (305334907). Retrieved from http://gateway.library.qut.edu.au/login?url=http://search.proquest.com.ezp01.library.qut.edu.au/docview/305334907?accountid=13380

Huang, J. (2009). Heteroglossic Practices and Language Ideologies: Combining Heteroglossia with Critical Discourse Studies to Investigate Digital Multilingual Discourses on Language Policies. In E. Barakos, J.W. Unger (eds.), *Discursive Approaches to Language Policy*, DOI 10.1057/978-1-137-53134-6_6

Hyland, K. (2003). Genre-based pedagogies: A social response to process. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 12*(1), 17-29. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(02)00124-8*

Hyland, K. (2007). Genre pedagogy: Language, literacy and L2 writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 16*(3), 148-164. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.07.005*

Hymes, D. (1994). Toward ethnographies of communication. In J. Maybin (Ed.), Language and literacy in social practice: A reader (pp.11-22). Avon, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Hymes, D. (2013). Foundations in Sociolinguistics: An ethnographic approach Retrieved from http://QUT.eblib.com.au/patron/FullRecord.aspx?p=1474755

Iemjinda, M. (2005). Teachers and changes: A School-based Professional Development Programme for Thai Teachers. *Silapakorn University Intl. J.* 5(1-2), 91-107.

Iftode, C. (2013). Foucault's Idea of Philosophy as 'Care of the Self:' Critical Assessment and Conflicting Metaphilosophical Views. Procedia - *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *71*, 76-85. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.01.011*

Iyer, R., Kettle, M., Luke, A., & Mills, K. A. (2014). Critical applied linguistics. In Leung, Constant & Street, Brian V. (Eds.) The Routledge Companion to English Studies. Routledge, London, pp. 317-332.

Ivanič, R. (1994). I is for interpersonal: Discoursal construction of writer identities and the teaching of writing. *Linguistics and Education*, *6*(1), 3-15. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0898-5898(94)90018-3*

Janks, H. (2010). *Literacy and Power* Retrieved from http://QUT.eblib.com.au/patron/FullRecord.aspx?p=460320

Jarunthawatchai, W. (2010). *A process-genre approach to teaching second language writing theoretical perspective and implementation in a Thai university setting*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Southampton.

Jenkins, J. (2006). Current Perspectives on Teaching World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca. *TESOL Quarterly*, *40*(1), 157-181.

Jewitt, C. (2012). An introduction to using video for research. NCRM Working Paper. NCRM. (Unpublished). Retrieve from http://eprints.ioe.ac.uk/18338/

Jindapitak, N. (2013). The politics of standard English: An exploration of Thai Tertiary English learners' perceptions of the notion of standard English. *Asian Social Science*, 9(5), 118-127.

John-Steiner V, & Mahn H. (1996). Sociocultural approaches to learning and development. Educ. Psychol. 31:191ñ206

Johnson, K. E. (2006). The Sociocultural Turn and Its Challenges for Second Language Teacher Education. *TESOL Quarterly*, *40*(1), 235-257.

Kaewmala. (2012). *Thai education failures – Part 4: Dismal English- language training*. Retrieved from: http://asiancorrespondent.com/78647/thai-education-failures-part-4-dismal-english-language-education/

Kaewnuch, S. (2008). Teaching agency and power as social: Creating transformative subjects in the clashes of modernity and postmodernity in Thai EFL writing classrooms (Order No. 3353102). Available from ProQuest Central; ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (304606588). Retrieved from http://gateway.library.qut.edu.au/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/304606588?accountid=13380

Kang, D. (2008). The classroom language use of a Korean elementary school EFL teacher: Another look at TETE. *System*, *36*, 214-226.

Kam, H. W. & Wong, R. Y. L. (2004). Language policies and language education: the impact in East Asian countries in the next decade. Singapore, Eastern University Press.

Kamler, B. (1994). Gender and genre in early writing. *Linguistics and Education, 6*(2), 153-182. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0898-5898(94)90010-8*

Kaur, S. (2015). Teaching Strategies Used by Thai EFL Lecturers to Teach Argumentative Writing. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *208*, 143-156.

Ke, I. C. (2015). A Global Language without a Global Culture: From Basic English to Global English. *English as a Global Language Education (EaGLE) Journal*, *1*(1), 65-87. *DOI:10.6294/EaGLE.2015.0101.04*

Kern, R. G. (1992). [untitled]. *The Modern Language Journal, 76*(1), 80-81. *DOI: 10.2307/329909*

Kessler, C. (Ed.). (1992). Cooperative Language Learning: A Teacher's Resource Book. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.

Khamkhien, A. (2010). Teaching English speaking and English speaking tests in the Thai context: A Reflection from Thai Perspective. *English Language Teaching*. 3(1), 184-190.

Khanarat, S., & Nomura, T. (2008). The analysis of English teaching methods as the second language in Thailand and Japan. *Journal of Saitama University, Faculty of Education*, *57*(2), 91-103.

Khojasteh, L., Shokrpour, N., & Afrasiabi, M. (2016). The Relationship between Writing Self-efficacy and Writing Performance of Iranian EFL Students. *International Journal Of Applied Linguistics And English Literature, 5*(4), 29-37. Retrieved from http://www.journals.aiac.org.au/index.php/IJALEL/article/view/2327/2031

Khoman, S. (1999). Thailand's industrialization: Implications for health, education, and science and technology. In M. Krongkaew (ed.), *Thailand's industrialization and its consequences* (147-166). Basingstoke: Macmillan.

Khuvasanond, K. (2013). The effects of teacher vs. student-centered instructional strategies on the vocabulary learning of sixth grade Thai students. (Unpublished Doctoral Thesis). University of Kansas, Lawrence, United States of America.

Kirkpatrick, A. (2012). Teaching English as a lingua franca in ASEAN: Maintaining linguistic and cultural diversity. Proceeding of *the 2012 International Conference on Cultural and Linguistic Diversity in ASSEAN*, Suan Dusit Rajabhat University, Bangkok, Thailand, 17-25.

Knobel, M., & Lankshear, C. (2007). *A new literacies sampler.* (29). Peter Lang.

Kobayashi, H., & Rinnert, C. (2013). L1/L2/L3 writing development: Longitudinal case study of a Japanese multicompetent writer. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 22*(1), 4-33. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2012.11.001*

Kohlbacher, F. (2006). The use of qualitative content analysis in case study research. In *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung/Forum: Qualitative Social Research*. 7(1).

Kongkerd, W. (2013). Teaching English in the era of English used as a lingua franca in Thailand. Retrieved from http://www.bu.ac.th/knowledgecenter/executive_journal/oct_dec.../aw01.pdf

Kongpetch, S. (2003). *The implication of the genre-based approach on the teaching English writing at the Department of Foreign Language, Khon Kaen University in north-eastern Thailand*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Technology, Sydney.

Kongpetch, S. (2006). Using a genre-based approach to teach writing to Thai students: A case study. *Prospect, 21*(2), 3-33.

Koper, R. (2004). Use of the Semantic Web to Solve Some Basic Problems in Education: Increase flexible, distributed lifelong learning; decrease teacher's workload. *Journal of Interactive Media in Education*. *2004*(1), Art. 5. *DOI: http://doi.org/10.5334/2004-6-koper*

Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* Eaglewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Krashen, S. D. (1988). *Second language acquisition and second language learning.* Eaglewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall International.

Krashen, S. D. (1995). The cause-effect fallacy and the time fallacy. In J. Alatis, C.

Kress, G. (1989). History and language: Towards a social account of linguistic change. *Journal of Pragmatics, 13*(3), 445-466. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0378-2166(89)90065-9*

Krisnachinda, S. (2006). A case study of a genre-based approach to teaching writing in tertiary context in Thailand. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Melbourne, Melbourne, Australia.

Kroll, B. (1998). Assessing Writing Abilities. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 18*, 219-240. doi:10.1017/S0267190500003561

Kulsirisawad, P. (2012). Students perceptions on the integration of peer feedback on grammatical errors in the EFL writing classroom. *Manutsat Paritat. Journal of Humanities*. Forthcoming 2012.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). A Postmethod Perspective on English Language Teaching. *World Englishes*, *22*(4), 539-550. *DOI: 10.1111/j.1467-971X.2003.00317.x*

Kvale, S. (1996). *InterViews*. Thousand Oaks, London, New Delhi: Sage Publications.

Kvale, S. (2007). *Doing Interviews.* London: Sage. Robertson 001.4KVA

Lamb, E. C. (2013). Power and resistance: New methods for analysis across genres in critical discourse analysis. *Discourse & Society*, *24*(3), 334-360.

Lankshear, C. (1999). Literacy studies in education: Disciplined developments in a post disciplinary age. *After the disciplines*, 199-228.

Lankshear, C., & Knobel, M. (2011). *New literacies*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).

Lao, R. (2015). A critical study of thailand's higher education reforms: The culture of borrowing. New York;London;: Routledge.

Laopongharn W. and Sercombe P., (2009). What relevance does intercultural communication have to language education in Thailand? *ARECLS, 6*, 59-83, Newcastle University, United Kingdom.

Lather, P. (2006). Paradigm proliferation as a good thing to think with: Teaching research in education as a wild profusion. *International journal of qualitative studies in education, 19*(1), 35-57.

Lather, P. (1986). Research as Praxis. *Harvard Educational Review, 56*(3), 257. Retrieved from ProQuest Central. Retrieved from http://gateway.library.qut.edu.au/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/212239365?accountid=13380

Lee, M. (2012). Teaching genre-based writing to Korean high school students at a basic level. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Wisconsin River Falls.

Lefstein, A. (2002). Thinking power and pedagogy apart-Coping with discipline in progressivist school reform. *Teachers College Record, 104*(8), 1627-1655.

Lemke, T. (2002). Foucault, governmentality and critique. *Rethinking Marxism, 14*(3), 49-64. Paper presented at the *Rethinking Marxism Conference*, University of Amherst (MA), September 21-24, 2000.

Lertpanyanuch, J. (2010). *Developing learners' grammatical knowledge and English writing ability through Brookes and Withrow's writing process model.* Unpublished master's thesis, Chiang Mai University, Chiang Mai, Thailand.

Li, X. (2007). Identities and Beliefs in ESL Writing: From Product to Process. *TESL Canada Journal, 25*(1), 41-64. Retrieved from eric. Retrieved from http://gateway.library.qut.edu.au/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ806785&site=ehost-live http://www.tesl.ca/Volume%2025.html.

Lieb, M. (2012). *The 32nd Thailand TESOL International Conference Proceedings 2012 "Teacher Collaboration: Shaping the Classroom of the Future"*. January 27-28, 2012 Imperial Queen's Park Hotel Bangkok, Thailand, 43-61.

Limtong, P. (1991). A case of a contextualized variety of English: English in the Thai context. In C. Bamroongraks et al. (Ed.), *The International Symposium on Language and Linguistics*, Bangkok, Thailand, 305-319. Thammasat University.

Lipka, J. (1994). Language, power, and pedagogy: Whose school is it?. *Peabody Journal of Education, 69*(2), 71-93. Retrieved from http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/01619569409538766. *DOI:10.1080/01619569409538766*

Lowenberg, P. H. (2002). Assessing English proficiency in the expanding circle. *World Englishes, 21*, 431–435.

Luke, A. (1992). The body literate: Discourse and inscription in early literacy training. *Linguistics and Education, 4*(1), 107-129.

Luke, A. (1995). Text and discourse in education: An introduction to critical discourse analysis. *Review of research in education, 21*, 3-48.

Mackenzie, A. S. (2002). EFL curriculum reform in Thailand. Retrieved fromhttp://jalt.org/pansig/2002/HTML/Mackenzie1.htm

Mackenzie, A. S. (2005). Current developments in EFL curriculum reform in Thailand. Retrieved from http://www.britishcouncil.or.th/future-perfect/current-devin-efl-curriculum-reform-in-thailand.doc

Malakul, K. & Bowering, M. (2006). *The application of genre theory to improve academic English writing courses.* Originally published in the Proceedings of the EDU-COM 2006 International Conference. Engagement and Empowerment: New Opportunities for Growth in Higher Education, Edith Cowan University, Perth Western Australia, 22-24 November 2006. Retrieved from http://ro.ecu.edu.au/ceducom/89

Manchon, R. M. (2001). Writing in the L2 Classroom: Issues in Research and Pedagogy. *International Journal of English Studies*, (1).

Marshall, S. (1991). A genre-based approach to the teaching of report-writing. *English for Specific Purposes, 10*(1), 3-13. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0889-4906(91)90012-L*

Martin, J. R. (2009). Genre and language learning: A social semiotic perspective. *Linguistics and Education, 20*(1), 10-21. Retrieved from http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0898589809000060. *DOI:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2009.01.003*

Martin, J. R. & Rothery, J. (1980-1981). *Writing Reports No. 1 and 2.* University of Sydney, department of Linguistics.

Masavisut, N., Sukwiwat, M., & Wongmontha, S. (1986). The power of English language in Thai media. *World Englishes, 5*, 197-207.

Maskhao, P. (2002). *A case study of English as a foreign language (EFL) acquisition in a postgraduate diploma course.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Queensland, St. Lucia, Queensland, Australia.

Mason, B., & Krashen, S. (1997). Extensive reading in English as a foreign language. *System, 25*(1), 91-102. Retrieved from http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0346251X96000632. *DOI:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(96)00063-2*

Matas, P. C. F., & Natolo, M. (2010). Love Grammar: Student-driven Grammar Learning Games. *The International Journal of Learning, 17*(10), 371–382.

Matsuda, P. K. (1998). Situating ESL writing in a cross-disciplinary context. *Written Communication, 15*(1), 99-121.

Maynard, T. (2007). Encounters with Forest School and Foucault: a risky business? *Education 3-13*, *35*(4), 379-391. *DOI: 10.1080/03004270701602640*

McCormack, A., Gore, J., & Thomas, K. (2006). Early Career Teacher Professional Learning. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 34*(1), 95-113. *DOI: 10.1080/13598660500480282*

McCuaig, L., Ohman, M. & Wright, J. (2013). Shepherds in the gym: employing a pastoral power analytic on caring teaching in HPE. *Sport, Education and Society, 18* (6), 788-806. available at Research Online: http://ro.uow.edu.au/sspapers/457

McDonald, D., Diehl, D. C., & Guion, L. A. (2002). *Triangulation: Establishing the Validity of Qualitative Studies.* The Institute of Food and Agricultural Sciences (IFAS). Department of Agriculture, Cooperative Extension Service, University of Florida.

McDonough, K. (2004). Learner-learner interaction during pair and small group activities in a Thai EFL context. *System*, 32(2), 207-224. DOI: http://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2004.01.003

McDonough, K. I. M., & Chaikitmongkol, W. (2007). Teachers' and Learners' Reactions to a Task-Based EFL Course in Thailand. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41(1), 107-132. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2007.tb00042.x. DOI:10.1002/j.1545-7249.2007.tb00042.x

McKay, S. L. (1992). *Teaching English overseas: An introduction* (1st ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

McLeod, J. (2001). Foucault Forever. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education, 22*(1), 95-104. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01596300120039786. *DOI:10.1080/01596300120039786*

McLeod, J., & Lin, L. (2010). A child's power in game-play. *Computers & Education*, *54*(2), 517-527.

McNamara, C. (1999) *General Guidelines for Conducting Interviews*. Retrieved from: http://www.mapnp.org/library/evaluatn/intrview.htm

Merriam, S. B. (1991). How research produces knowledge. In J. M. Peters, P. Jarvis, & Associates (Eds.), *Adult education: Evolution and achievements in a developing field of study*. 42-65. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S. (1998). Qualitative research and case study applications in education. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.

Meyer, E. J., Wade, A., & Abrami, P. C. (2013). Teaching with electronic portfolios to develop 21st century literacies. *Learning Landscapes*, 6 (2), 265-281.

Mills, K. A. (2005). Deconstructing binary oppositions in literacy discourse and pedagogy. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy, The*, 28(1), 67-82.

Mills, K. A. (2006). Multiliteracies: A critical ethnography: Pedagogy, power, discourse and access to multiliteracies.

Mills, K. A. (2007). Access to multiliteracies: A critical ethnography. *Ethnography and Education, 2*(3), 305-325.

Mills, K. A. (2010). A review of the "digital turn" in the new literacy studies. *Review of Educational Research, 80*(2), 246-271.

Mills, K. (2010). The multiliteracies classroom: Multilingual Matters.

Mills, K. A. (2016). Literacy Theories for the Digital Age: Social, Critical, Multimodal, Spatial, Material, and Sensory Lenses: Multilingual Matters.

Mills, K. A. & Comber, B. (2013). Space, place and power: The spatial turn in literacy research. *International Handbook of Research in Children's Literacy, Learning and Culture*, 412-423.

Mills, K. A. & Exley, B. (2014). Time, space, and text in the elementary school digital writing classroom. *Written Communication, 31*(4), 434-469.

Mills, K & Unsworth, L (2015). The literacy curriculum: A critical review. In Wyse, Dominic, Hayward, Louise, & Pandya, Jessica (Eds.) *The SAGE Handbook of Curriculum, Pedagogy and Assessment.* SAGE Publications Ltd.

Ministry of Education. (1996). *English Curriculum 1996 in secondary curriculum 1978-1990*. Bangkok: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education. (2001). *The Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2544 (A.D.2001).* Ministry of Education. Bangkok, Thailand.

Ministry of Education. (2006). *Education in Thailand 2005/2006.* Office of Education Council. Bangkok: Amarin.

Ministry of Education. (2008). *The Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D.2008).* Ministry of Education. Bangkok, Thailand. Retrieved from www.act.ac.th/document/1741.pdf

Ministry of Education. (2013). *Thailand's basic national curriculum 2013.* Bangkok: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of University Affairs. (1995). Thailand's education administration and system. Retrieved from http://www.inter.mua.go.th/info/thailand.html

Modehiran, P. & Krittawattanawong, K. (2009). Effects of task-based writing instruction on English writing ability of upper secondary school students. *An Online Journal of Education, 4*(1), 672-684. Retrieved from http://www.edu.chula.ac.th/ojed

Mondada, L. (2012). Garden Lessons: Embodied Action and Joint Attention in Extended Sequences. In *Interaction and Everyday Life*, edited by H. Nasu and F. Ch. Waksler, 279–296. Lanham: Lexington Books.

Mushtaq, H. & Rabbani, R. (2016). Using code-switching as a pedagogical tool in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms, *INTED2016 Proceedings*, pp. 2964-2973.DOI**:** 10.21125/inted.2016.0167

Myles, J. (2002). Second language writing and research: The writing process and error analysis in student texts. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, 6(2), 1-19.

Nation, The. (2005, Aug 11). English teaching: Tests shock sparks call for revamp. *The Nation.*

Nayar, P. B. (1997). *ESL/EFL Dichotomy Today: Language Politics or Pragmatics?*. *TESOL Quarterly, 31*, 9–37. *DOI: 10.2307/3587973*

Ningrum, A. S. B. (2012). Mind mapping as a writing strategy across gender differences. In B. Y. Cahyono & Indah, R. N (Eds.), *Second Language Research and Pedagogy: Towards the Development of English Language Teaching in Indonesia.* pp. 85-99. Malang: State University of Malang Press.

Nomnian, S. (2013). Review of English language basic education core curriculum: Pedagogical implications for Thai primary level teachers of English. *Kasetsart Journal* (*Social Sciences*), *34*(3), 583-589.

Nonkukketkhong, K., Baldauf, R. B., & Moni, K. (2006). Learner-centeredness in Teaching English as a Foreign Language. Paper presented at the 26 *Thai TESOL International Conference*, Chiang Mai, Thailand, 19-21 January 2006.

Noom-Ura, S. (2013). English-Teaching Problems in Thailand and Thai Teachers' Professional Development Needs. *The Journal of English Language Teaching*, 6 (11), 139-147. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n11p139.

Norton, B. & C. Tang (1997). The Identity of the Non-native ESL Teacher On the Power and Status of Non-native ESL Teachers. *TESOL Quarterly*, *31*(3), 577-580.

Norton, B., & Toohey, K. (2001). Changing Perspectives on Good Language Learners. *TESOL Quarterly, 35*(2), 307-322. *DOI: 10.2307/3587650*

Nunan, D. (1992). *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (2003). The Impact of English as a Global Language on Educational Policies and Practices in the Asia-Pacific Region. *TESOL Quarterly, 37*(4), 589-613. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3588214. *DOI:10.2307/3588214*

Nguyen, L., Torlina, L., Peszynski, K., & Corbitt, B. (2006). Power relations in virtual communities: An ethnographic study. *Electronic Commerce Research, 6*(1), 21-37.

O'Byrne, B. (2001). Needed: A Compass To Navigate the Multilingual English Classroom. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *44*(5), 440-449. Retrieved from eric. Retrieved from http://gateway.library.qut.edu.au/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ621252&site=ehost-live.

O'Farrell, C. (2005). *Michel foucault* (1st ed.). London: SAGE Publications.

O'Farrell, C. (2007). Key concepts. *Michel-Foucault.com*.

O'Mullane, M. J. (1994). *Planning of the implementation of public policy: a case study of the Board of Studies, N.S.W.*, Doctor of Philosophy thesis, University of Wollongong - Graduate School of Education, University of Wollongong, 1994. Retrieved from http://ro.uow.edu.au/theses/1875

Office of the Basic Education Commission. (2008). *Basic education core curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008)*. Bangkok: Ministry of Education.

Office of the Education Council (OEC). (2007). Education in Thailand 2007. Bangkok: Amarin Printing and Publishing. http://www.onec.go.th/cms/admin/admin_book/Content/uploaded/url/947-file.pdf

Office of the National Education Commission. (1999). Office of the Prime Minister.. *National Education Act of B.E. 2542 (1999).* Bangkok: Office of the National Education Commission, Office of the Prime Minister.

Oral, Y. (2013). The right things are what I expect them to do: Negotiation of power relations in an English classroom. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education, 12*(2), 96–115. *DOI:10.1080/15348458.2013.775877*

Oxford, R., & Crookall, D. (1989). Research on Language Learning Strategies: Methods, Findings, and Instructional Issues. *The Modern Language Journal, 73*(4), 404-419. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1989.tb05321.x. *DOI:10.1111/j.1540-4781.1989.tb05321.x*

Oxford, R. L., Holloway, M. E., & Horton-Murillo, D. (1992). Language learning styles: Research and practical considerations for teaching in the multicultural tertiary ESL/EFL classroom. *System, 20*(4), 439-456. Retrieved from http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/0346251X9290057A. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X(92)90057-A*

Pane, D. M. (2009). *The relationship between classroom interactions and exclusionary discipline as a social practice: A critical microethnography*. FIU Electronic Theses and Dissertations. Paper 109. http://digitalcommons.fiu.edu/etd/109

Pane, D. M., Rocco, T. S., Miller, L. D., & Salmon, A. K. (2014). How Teachers Use Power in the Classroom to Avoid or Support Exclusionary School Discipline Practices. *Urban Education, 49*(3), 297-328. *DOI: 10.1177/0042085913478620*

Patarapongpaisan, T. (1996). *Effects of process approach on writing of undergraduate English major students of Rajabhat Institute Chandrakasem, Bangkok.* Unpublished M.Ed. thesis, Kasetsart University, Bangkok.

Patton, M.Q. (2002). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Patzelt, K. E. (1995). Principles of Whole Language and Implications for ESL Learners. *Viewpoints*, 120. (ERIC Digest No. 400-526.)

Payaprom, S. (2012). *The impact of a genre-based approach on English language teaching in an EFL tertiary context in Thailand.* Doctoral dissertation. University of Wollongong.

Pearson, J. R. (2010). Exercises of power: Applying Foucault's conceptions of power to Mazahua and Inuit enculturation events. *Vis-à-vis: Explorations in Anthropology*, 10(1), 47-57.

Pennycook, A. (2001). Critical applied linguistics. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Pennycook, A. D. (2007). Global Englishes and transcultural flows. New York, NY: Routledge.

Pennycook, A. D. (2010). Language as a local practice. New York, NY: Routledge.

Pennycook, A. D. (1998). English and the discourses of colonialism, 1, Routledge, London.

Perl, S. (1979). The Composing Processes of Unskilled College. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 13(4), 317-336. URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/40170774 .Accessed: 12/02/2013

Perry, N. E. (1998). Young children's self-regulated learning and contexts that support it. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 90, 715-729.

Perryman, J. (2006). Panoptic performativity and school inspection regimes: Disciplinary mechanisms and life under special measures. *Journal of Education Policy*, *21*(2), 147-161.

Phadung, M., Suksakulchai, S., & Kaewprapan, W. (2016). Interactive whole language e-story for early literacy development in ethnic minority children. [journal article]. *Education and Information Technologies, 21*(2), 249-263. doi: 10.1007/s10639-014-9318-8

Phochanapan, D. (2007). *Effects of self-monitoring writing strategies instruction on English writing ability of pre-cadets*. Unpublished M.Ed thesis, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand.

Pike, J. (2008). Foucault, space and primary school dining rooms. *Children's Geographies, 6*(4), 413-422. *DOI: 10.1080/14733280802338114*

Pitsoe, V., & Letseka, M. (2013). Foucault's Discourse and Power: Implications for Instructionist Classroom Management, *Open Journal of Philosophy*, 3 (1), 23-28. Published Online February 2013 in SciRes (http://www.scirp.org/journal http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/ojpp.2013.31005

Pookcharoen, S. (2009). Metacognitive online reading strategies among Thai EFL university students (Doctoral dissertation). Indiana University, United States – Indiana. (AAT 3390322)

Popkewitz, T. S. & M. Brennan (1997). Restructuring of social and political theory in education: Foucault and a social epistemology of school practices. *Educational Theory, 47*(3), 287-313.

Power, M. (2011). Foucault and sociology. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *37*, 35-56.

Prapphal, K. (2008). Issues and trends in language testing and assessment in Thailand. *Language Testing, 25*(1), 127-143.

Prasongsook, S. (2010). *Teaching and learning English at the grade 3 level of primary school in Thailand: Evaluating the effectiveness of three teaching methods.* Doctoral dissertation, University of Canberra.

Puengpipattrakul, W. (2014). A process approach to writing to develop Thai EFL students' socio-cognitive skills. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 11(2), 270-284.

Punthumasen, P. (2007). *International program for teacher education: an approach to tackling problems of English education in Thailand.* Paper presented at the The 11th UNESCOAPEID International Conference Reinventing Higher Education: Toward Participatory and Sustainable Development.

Purcell-Gates, V. (2012). Ethnographic Research. In Duke, N., & Mallette, M. H. (2012). *Literacy Research Methodologies*, Second Edition Retrieved from http://QUT.eblib.com.au/patron/FullRecord.aspx?p=670166

Puri, J. (2014). States' Sexualities: Theorizing Sexuality, Gender and Governance.". *The SAGE Handbook of Feminist Theory*, 343.

Qian, X., Tian, G., & Wang, Q. (2009). Code-switching in the primary EFL classroom in China - Two case studies. *System, 37*, 719-730.

Rabinow, P., Faubion, J., & Hurley, R. (1997). The Essential Works of Michel Foucault, 1954-1984. *Power (New York, 2000)*.

Raimes, A. (1983). *Techniques in teaching writing.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Rajadurai, J. (2004). The faces and facets of English in Malaysia. *English Today, 20*(4), 54-58.

Rajagopal, I. (2014). Does the Internet shape a disciplinary society? The information-knowledge paradox. *First Monday, 19*(3).

Ramanathan, V., & Atkinson, D. (1999). Ethnographic approaches and methods in L2 writing research: a critical guide and review. *Applied Linguistics, 20*(1), 44-70. *DOI: 10.1093/applin/20.1.44*

Ramanathan, V., & Kaplan, R. B. (2000). Genres, Authors, Discourse Communities: Theory and Application for (L1 and) L2 Writing Instructors. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 9*(2), 171-191. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(00)00021-7*

Rao, Z. (2007). Training in Brainstorming and Developing Writing Skills, *ELT Journal*. 61(2). Oxford University Press. http://www.mindtools.com

Reichelt, M. (1995). *ESL Writing.* In M. Kramer, G. Leggett, & C. Mead (Eds.), *Resource guide: Prentice Hall handbook for writers, 12th ed.* (pp. 105-127). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Reid, J. M. (1993). *Teaching ESL writing.* Eaglewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.

Richards, J. C. (2006). Communicative language teaching today. Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. (1990). New Trends in the Teaching of Writing in ESL/ EFL in Wang Z. (ed.) *ELT in China*. Papers Presented at the International Symposium on Teaching English in the Chinese Context, Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, Beijing.

Richards, J. C. (1996). Teachers' maxims in language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly, 30*(2), 281–296.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching.* Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching.* 2nd ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rigg, P. (1991). Whole Language in TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly*. 25 (3), 521-542.

Ruan, Q., & Ma, H. (2013). Power Relation and Critical Pedagogy in Classroom Discussions: a Case Study of EFL Education in China. In *2013 International Conference on Education, Management and Social Science (ICEMSS-13)*. Atlantis Press.

Rubdy, R. (2001). Creative destruction: Singapore's Speak Good English movement. *World Englishes, 20*(3), 341-355.

Saengboon, S. (2010). Post - Method Pedagogy and Thai EFL Teachers: Opportunities and Challenges. National Institute of Development Administration.

Saengboon, S. (2012). *Journal of Education and Practice.* www.iiste.org ISSN 2222-1735 (Paper) ISSN 2222-288X (Online) 3(5).

Sakontawut, N. (2003). *Functional sentence perspective and second-language composition: A study of revision process in a writing workshop for Thai college students. Dissertation Abstracts International, 64*(2), 485A.

Santoso, A. (2010). *Scaffolding an EFL (English as a Foreign Language) 'Effective Writing' class in a hybrid learning community.* Doctoral dissertation. Queensland University of Technology.

Sasaki, M. (2000). Toward an Empirical Model of EFL Writing Processes: An Exploratory Study. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 9*(3), 259-291. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(00)00028-X*

Sawir, E. (2005). Language difficulties of international students in Australia: The effects of prior learning experience. *International Education Journal*, 6(5), 567-580.

Scheer, A. (2011). Designed to control, destined to fail? Disciplinary practices at an inner city elementary school in the United States. *Childhoods Today, 5*(2)

Scribner, S. & Cole, M. (1991).Literacy without schooling: Testing for intellectual effects. *Harvard Educational Review, 48*, 448-461.

SEMEO (2012). Teaching Competency Standards in Southeast Asian Countries: ELEVEN COUNTRY AUDIT Retrieve from http://www.seameo.org/SEAMEOWeb2/images/stories/Publications/Centers_pub/2012TeachingCompetencyStandards/TeachingCompetencyStd.pdf

Serrado, A. & Azcarate, P. (2006). Analyzing teacher resistance to teaching probability in compulsory education. In A. Rossman, & B. Chance (Eds.), Proceedings of the Seventh International Conference on Teaching Statistics, Salvador, Brazil. *International Statistical Institute and International Association for Statistical Education*. Online: http://www.stat.auckland.ac.nz/~iase.

Shulman, M. (2005). *In focus: Strategies for academic writers.* Michigan: The University of Michigan Press.

Siisiäinen, L. (2015). Foucault, pastoral power, and optics. *Critical Research on Religion, 3*(3), 233-249. *DOI: 10.1177/2050303214567668*

Silberman, M. (1996). Active learning: 101 strategies to teach any subject. Needham Heights, MA: Ally and Bacon.

Silva, T., & Brice, C. (2004). Research In Teaching Writing. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 24*, 70-106. *DOI:10.1017/S0267190504000042*

Silva, T. (1990). Second language composition instruction: Developments, issues, and directions in ESL. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing* (11-23). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Silva, T. (1993). Toward an Understanding of the Distinct Nature of L2 Writing: The ESL Research and Its Implications. *TESOL Quarterly, 27*(4), 657-677. *DOI: 10.2307/3587400*

Silva, T., & Matsuda, P. K. (2012). *On Second Language Writing.* Retrieved from http://QUT.eblib.com.au/patron/FullRecord.aspx?p=1099498

Silva, T. (1993). *Tutoring ESL Students College Composition and Communication, 44*(4), 525-537, Published by: National Council of Teachers of English Stable URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/358388

Silva, T., Leki, I. & Carson, J. (1997). Broadening the Perspective of Mainstream Composition Studies: Some Thoughts from the Disciplinary Margins. *Written Communication, 14* (1997), 398-428.

Song, J. J. (1998). English in South Korea revisited via Martin Jonghak Baik (1992, 1994), and Rosa Jinyoung Shim (1994). *World Englishes, 17*(2), 263-271.

SparkNotes Editors. (n.d.). SparkNote on Discipline and Punish. Retrieved October 17, 2012, from http://www.sparknotes.com/philosophy/disciplinepunish/

Spradley, J. (1979). *The ethnographic interview*. Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace.

Steele, V. (2004). Product and Process Writing. Retrieved from http://www.englishonline.org.cn/en/teachers/workshops/teaching-writing/teaching-tips/product-process

Street, B.V. (2006). New Literacies Studies: Next Stages. Orbit; 2006, *ProQuest Central*, *36*(1), 37-39.

Street, B. V. (1995). Social Literacies. London: Longman.

Street, B. V. (2001). *The new literacy studies*. In E. Cushman, G. R. Kintgen, B. M. Knoll & M. Rose (Eds.), Literacy: A critical sourcebook (pp. 430- 442). Boston: St. Martin's Press.

Street, B. V. (2014). Social literacies: Critical approaches to literacy in development, ethnography and education. Routledge.

Stroupe, D. (2014). Examining classroom science practice communities: How teachers and students negotiate epistemic agency and learn science-as-practice. *Science Education*, *98*(3), 487-516.

Stroupe, R & Kimura, K (2015), 'Opportunities and Challenges Across ASEAN: Looking Ahead to the ASEAN Economic Community', in R Stroupe & K Kimura (eds), *ASEAN Integration and the Role of English Language Teaching*, Language Education in Asia & CamTESOL, Phnom Penh.

Sudradjat, I. (2012). Foucault, the Other Spaces, and Human Behaviour. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 36,* 28-34. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.03.004*

Sukwiwat, M. (1985). *The status and role of English in Thailand.* A research report prepared for the United States Information Agency.

Susser, B. (1994). Process approaches in ESL/EFL writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 3*(1), 31-47. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/1060-3743(94)90004-3*

Suwannasom, T. (2001). *A study on using restructuring strategies and abilities in English language expository writing of undergraduate English majors, Naresuan University.* Unpublished M.Ed thesis, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand.

Tagong, K. (1991). *Revising strategies of Thai students: Text-level changes in essays written in Thai and in English*. Dissertation. Illinois State University.

Tananuraksakul, N. (2011). Power relations in pedagogy: A constraint on EFL speakers' identity confidence and identity anxiety. *The 2nd International Conference on Foreign Language Learning and Teaching (FLLT 2011) proceeding*. (167-171). Bangkok, Thailand. Retrieved from http://litu.tu.ac.th/2012/index.php/fllt-conferences/500-fllt-2011-conference-proceedings

Tanuwongviwat, S. (1995). *A comparison of Pratom Suksa six students' ability in Thai writing composition with different ability taught by the process approach and the critical approach.* Unpublished M.Ed thesis, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand.

Taylor, C. (2010). The Culture of Confession from Augustine to Foucault: *A Genealogy of the confessing Animal*. Routledge.

Temple, B., & Young, A. (2004). Qualitative Research and Translation Dilemmas. *Qualitative Research*, *4*(2), 161-178. *DOI: 10.1177/1468794104044430*

Teng, B., & Sinwongsuwat, K. (2015). Teaching and learning English in Thailand and the integration of Conversation Analysis (CA) into the classroom. *English Language Teaching*, 8(3), 1–11. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1075215.pdf>.

Teo, T. W., & Osborne, M. (2014). Understanding accountability from a microanalysis of power dynamics in a specialized STEM school. *Critical Studies in Education*, *55*(2), 229-245. DOI: 10.1080/17508487.2014.900097

Thai-Israel Foundation. (2000). Learning for Thai children: Whole language approach. Retrieved from www.onec.go.th/publication/4306006/index_p.htm

Thairath, The. (2013, Feb 12). Education News. Retrieved from http//www.thaitath.co.th

Thammasarnsophon, S. (1991). *A comparison of English writing ability of Mathayom Suksa Six students learning through process-oriented approach and product-oriented approach.* Unpublished M.Ed. thesis, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand.

Tharawoot, Y. (2009). *Analysis of teacher verbal feedback in a Thai postgraduate classroom* (Doctoral). University of Southampton. Retrieved from https://eprints.soton.ac.uk/69652/

The Greenwood Dictionary of Education. (2001). Collins, J. W. III & O'Brien, N. P. (eds.), 2nd ed. Greenwood Press. pp. 581. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/file.PostFileLoader.html?id=55ffddfd5f7f71517a8b45ae...

The Dhammakaya Foundation. (2005). *A manual of peace: 38 steps towards enlightened living*. Bangkok: Craftsman Press.

Thongrin, S. (2002). *E-mail peer responses in collectivist Thai culture: Task, social and cultural dimensions.* Unpublished dissertation, Indiana University of Pennsylvania.

Toh, G. (2000). Teaching writing in Rural Thailand: Considering new perspectives. *TESL Canada Journal/Revue. TESL DU CANADA*, spring 2000, *17*(2), 101-109.

Tongpoon-Patanasorn, A. (2011). Impact of learner-centeredness on Primary school teachers: A case study in Northeast Thailand. *The Journal of Asia TEFL* Autumn 2011, *8*(3), 1-28.

Todd R.W. & Keyuravong S. (2004). Process and product of English language learning in the National Education Act, Ministry of Education standards and recommended textbooks at the secondary level. *ThaiTESOL BULLETIN*. 17(3), 15-45.

Treethawewongkul, C. (2011). Novice teachers' use of L1 in an English class. MA. Thesis. King Mungkut's University of Technology Thonburi.

Tremain, S. (2005). Foucault and the government of disability.

Tsang, M. C., & Taoklam, W. (1992). Comparing the costs of government and private primary education in Thailand. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 12(3), 177-190. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0738-0593(92)90043-L

Tupas, T. R. F. (2006). Standard Englishes, pedagogical paradigms and their conditions of (im)possibility. In R. Rubdy, & M. Saraceni (Eds.), *English in the world: Global rules, global roles,* 169-185). London: Continuum Press.

Tyrosvoutis, G. (2016). Taking the sage off the stage: Identifying obstacles to student-centred instruction on the Thai-Myanmar border, *The International Education Journal: Comparative Perspectives*, 15 (4), pp. 112-132.

Uhrenfeldt, L., Paterson, B. & Hall, E. O. C. (2007). Using video recording to enhance the development of novice researchers interviewing skills. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 6 (1), 36-50. http://ejournals.library.ualberta.ca/index.php/IJQM/article/view/466/452

UNESCO (2013). Living Document: UNESCO Country Programming Document for Thailand 2013-2016. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002268/226869E.pdf.

Valenzuela, D., & Shrivastava, P. (2002). Interview as a method for qualitative research. *Southern Cross University and the Southern Cross Institute of Action Research (SCIAR).* http://www.public.asu.edu/~kroel/www500/Interview%20Fri.pdf

Vibulphol, J. (2004). Beliefs about language learning and teaching approaches of pre-service EFL teachers in Thailand. Unpublished Dissertation, Oklahoma State University.

Walker, D. (2011). How to Teach Contrastive (Intercultural) Rhetoric: Some Ideas for Pedagogical Application. *New Horizons in Education, 59*(3), 71-81.

Walsh, M. (2009). Pedagogic Potentials of Multimodal Literacy *Handbook of Research on New Media Literacy at the K-12 Level: Issues and Challenges* (pp. 32-47): IGI Global.

Wardhaugh, R. (2010). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics* (6th ed.). UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Warschauer, M. (1997). A sociocultural approach to literacy and its significance for CALL. *Nexus: The convergence of research & teaching through new information technologies*, 88-97.

Watcharapunyawong, S., & Usaha, S. (2013). Thai EFL students' writing errors in different text types: The interference of the first language. *English Language Teaching*, *6*(1), 67.

Watson-Gegeo, K. A. (1988). Ethnography in ESL: Defining the Essentials. *TESOL Quarterly*, *22*(4), 575-592. *DOI: 10.2307/3587257*

Watson-Todd, R., Chaiyasuk, I., & Tantisawatrat, N. (2008). A functional analysis of teachers' instructions. *RELC Journal*, *39*(1), 25-50. *DOI: 10.1177/0033688208091139*

Watson Todd, R. (2006). Continuing change after the innovation. *System, 34*(1), 1-14.

Weaver, C. (1990). Understanding Whole Language: From Principles to Practice. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. NH: Heinemann.

Wignell, P. (1994). Genre across the curriculum. *Linguistics and Education, 6*(4), 355-372. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0898-5898(94)90003-5*

Williams, J. (1999). Learner-generated attention to form. *Language Learning, 49* (4), 583-625.

Wiriyachitra, A. (2002). English language teaching and learning in Thailand in this decade. *Thai TESOL Focus, 15*(1), 4-9

Wisessang, A. (1996). *Effects of the process approach on teaching writing of Mathayomsuksa 3 students of Panabhandhu School, Bangkok.* Unpublished M.Ed. thesis, Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Thailand.

Wong, D. (2014). Sound, silence, music: Power. *Ethnomusicology, 58*(2), 347-353.

Wongnititam, K. (2008). *Using writing process approach and weblog to enhance English writing ability and achievement motivation of expanding level students.* Unpublished master's thesis, Chiang Mai University, Chiang Mai, Thailand.

Wongsothorn, A., Hiranburana, K., & Chinnawongs, S. (2002). English Language Teaching in Thailand Today. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 22*(2), 107-116. *DOI: 10.1080/0218879020220210*

Wongsothorn, A. (2000). Thailand. In H. W. Kam & R. Y. L. Wong (Eds.), *Language policies and language education: The impact on East Asian countries in the next decade* (307-320). Singapore: Times Academic Press.

Wongsothorn, A. (2001). Thailand language education policy. *Asian Conference on Language Education Policy*, Japan.

Wongsothorn, A. (2002). Thailand's globalisation and language policy: effects on language classroom practice. In H. W. Kam and C. Ward (Eds.), *Language in the global context: Implications for the language classroom* (326-339). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

Wongsothorn, A., Hiranburana K. and S. Chinnawongs. (2003). *English Language Teaching in Thailand Today*, in Ho Wah Kam and R.L. Wong (eds.), *English Language Teaching in East Asia Today: Changes Policies and Practices.* Singapore: Eastern Universities Press, 441-53.

Wongsothorn, A., Sukamolsun, S., Chinthammit, P., Ratanothayanonth, P., & Noparumpa, P. (1996). National profiles of language education: Thailand. *PASAA, 26*(1), 89-103.

Wright, J. (2000). Disciplining the body: Power, knowledge and subjectivity in a physical education lesson. In A. Lee, & C. Poynton (Eds.), Culture and Text (pp. 152-168). Sydney, Australia: Allen and Unwin.

Wyatt, D. K. (2003). Thailand : A short history (2nd ed.). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Xue, J., & Zuo, W. (2013). English Dominance and Its Influence on International Communication. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 3*(12), 2262: 2266. Finland: ACADEMIA Publisher. *DOI:10.4304/tpls.3.12.2262-2266*

Yano, Y. (2001). World Englishes in 2000 and beyond. *World Englishes, 20*(2), 119-132.

Yilmaz, K. (2007). Introducing the 'linguistic turn' to history education, *International Education Journal*, 2007, 8(1), pp. 270-278.

You, X. (2004). The choice made from no choice: English writing instruction in a Chinese University. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 13*(2), 97-110. *DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2003.11.001*

Zamel, V. (1976). Teaching composition in the ESL classroom: What we can learn from research in the teaching of English. *TESOL Quarterly, 10*(1), 67-76.

Zamel, V. (1982). Writing: The process of discovering meaning. *TESOL Quarterly, 16*(2), 195-209.

Zen, D. (2005). *Teaching ESL/EFL Writing beyond Language Skills*. Retrieved from http://gateway.library.qut.edu.au/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=ED502622&site=ehost-live

Zeichner, K. M. & J. Gore (1989). Teacher socialization, National Center for Research on Teacher Education.

Ziegahn, L. (2001). Considering Culture in the Selection of Teaching Approaches for Adults. Retrieved from http://www.ericdigests.org/2002-3/culture.htm

Appendices

Appendix A:
English Language Basic Education Core Curriculum 2008: Learning area of foreign language: strands and outcomes

Strand 1: Language for Communication	**Grade level indicators**		
Standard 1.1: Understanding of and capacity to interpret what has been heard and read from various types of media, and ability to express opinions with proper reasoning	**Grade 4** 1. Act in compliance with orders, requests and simple instructions heard or read. 2. Pronounce and spell words; accurately read aloud groups of words, sentences, simple texts and chants by observing the principles of reading. 3. Choose/ specify the pictures or symbols or signs corresponding to the meanings of sentences and short texts heard or read. 4. Answer questions from listening to and reading sentences, dialogues and simple tales.	**Grade 5** 1. Act in compliance with orders, requests and simple instructions heard or read. 2. Accurately read aloud sentences, texts and short poems by observing the principles of reading. 3. Specify/ draw the symbols or signs corresponding to the meanings of sentences and short texts heard or read. 4. Tell the main points and answer questions from listening to and reading dialogues and simple tales or short texts.	**Grade 6** 1. Act in compliance with orders, requests and simple instructions heard or read. 2. Accurately read aloud texts, tales and short poems by observing the principles of reading. 3. Choose/ specify the sentences or short texts corresponding to the meanings of symbols or signs read. 4. Tell the main idea and answer questions from listening to and reading dialogues, simple tales and stories.
Standard 1.2: Endowment with language communication skills for exchange of data and information; efficient expression	**Grade 4** 1. Speak/ write in an exchange in interpersonal communication. 2. Use orders, requests and	**Grade 5** 1. Speak/ write in an exchange in interpersonal communication. 2. Use orders and requests for	**Grade 6** 1. Speak/ write in an exchange in interpersonal communication. 2. Use orders, requests and give

of feelings and opinions	simple requests for permission. 3. Speak/ write to express their own needs and to ask for help in simple situations. 4. Speak/ write to ask for and give data about themselves, their friends and families. 5. Speak to express their own feelings about various matters around them and various activities by following the models heard.	permission and give simple instructions. 3. Speak/ write to express needs, ask for help and agree and refuse to give help in simple situations. 4. Speak/ write to ask for and give data about themselves, their friends and families, and matters around them. 5. Speak/ write to express their own feelings about various matters around them and various activities, as well as provide brief justifications.	instructions. 3. Speak/ write to express needs, ask for help and agree and refuse to give help in simple situations. 4. Speak/ write to ask for and give data about themselves, their friends and families and matters around them. 5. Speak/ write to express their own feelings about various matters around them and various activities, as well as provide brief justifications.
Standard 1.3: Ability to present data, information, concepts and views about various matters through speaking and writing	**Grade 4** 1. Speak/ write to give data about themselves and matters around them. 2. Speak/ draw pictures to show relationships of various objects around them according to what they have heard or read. 3. Speak to express simple opinions about matters around them.	**Grade 5** 1. Speak/ write to give data about themselves and matters around them. 2. Draw pictures, plans and charts to show various data heard or read. 3. Speak/ write to express opinions about various matters around them.	**Grade 6** 1. Speak/ write to give data about themselves, their friends and the environment around them. 2. Draw pictures, plans, charts, and tables to show various data heard or read. 3. Speak/ write to express opinions about various matters around them.
Strand 2: Language and Culture	**Grade level indicators**		
Standard 2.1:	**Grade 4**	**Grade 5**	**Grade 6**

Appreciation of the relationship between language and culture of native speakers and capacity for use of language appropriate to occasions and places	1. Speak and politely make accompanying gestures in accordance with social manners and culture of native speakers. 2. Answer questions about festivals/ important days/ celebrations and simple lifestyles of native speakers. 3. Participate in language and cultural activities appropriate to their age levels.	1. Use words, tone of voice and polite gestures in accordance with social manners and culture of native speakers. 2. Answer questions/ tell the importance of festivals/ important days/ celebrations and simple lifestyles of native speakers. 3. Participate in language and cultural activities in accordance with their interests.	1. Use words, tone of voice and gestures and manners politely and appropriately by observing the social manners and culture of native speakers. 2. Give data about the festivals/ important days/ celebrations/ lifestyles of native speakers. 3. Participate in language and cultural activities in accordance with their interests.
Standard 2.2:	**Grade 4**	**Grade 5**	**Grade 6**
Appreciation of similarities and differences between language and culture of native and Thai speakers, and capacity for accurate and appropriate use of language	1. Tell differences of the sounds of the alphabet, words, groups of words, sentences and texts in foreign languages and Thai language. 2. Tell the similarities/ differences between the festivals and celebrations in the culture of native speakers and those in Thailand.	1. Tell similarities/ differences between pronunciation of various kinds of sentences, use of pronunciation marks and word order in accordance with structures of sentences in foreign languages and Thai language. 2. Tell the similarities/ differences between the festivals and celebrations in the culture of native speakers and those in Thailand.	1. Tell similarities/ differences between pronunciation of various kinds of sentences, use of pronunciation marks and word order in accordance with structures of sentences in foreign languages and Thai language. 2. Compare the differences/ similarities between the festivals, celebrations and traditions of native speakers and those of

			Thais.
Strand 3: Language and Relationship with Other Learning Areas	**Grade level indicators**		
Standard 3.1: Usage of foreign languages to link knowledge with other learning areas, as foundation for further development and to seek knowledge and widen one's world view	**Grade 4**	**Grade 5**	**Grade 6**
	1. Search for and collect the terms related to other learning areas, and present them through speaking/writing.	1. Search for and collect the terms related to other learning areas, and present them through speaking/writing.	1. Search for and collect the terms related to other learning areas from learning sources, and present them through speaking/writing.
Strand 4: Language and Relationship with Community and the world	**Grade level indicators**		
Standard 4.1: Ability to use foreign languages in various situations in school, community and society	**Grade 4**	**Grade 5**	**Grade 6**
	1. Listen and speak in situations in the classroom and in school.	1. Listen, speak and read/write in various situations in the classroom and in school.	1. Use language for communication in various situations in the classroom and in school.
Standard 4.2: Usage of foreign languages as basic tools for further education, livelihood and exchange of learning with the world community	**Grade 4**	**Grade 5**	**Grade 6**
	1. Use foreign languages to search for and collect various data.	1. Use foreign languages to search for and collect various data.	1. Use foreign languages to search for and collect various data.

Appendix B:
Interview Transcripts

Interview transcripts: Lina

Q no.	The original transcription in Thai language	Translation by the researcher and a translator	Transcription edited by the supervisory team and an accredited editor	Coding
1.	ในช่วงเรียนชั้นระดับประถมศึกษาจะเป็นการสอนเขียนคำศัพท์ ประโยคง่าย ๆ ไม่ซับซ้อน เป็น simple sentence ไม่ใช่ complex sentence วิธีสอนจะเป็นคำศัพท์มาแต่งประโยคให้ถูกตามหลัก grammar มัธยมศึกษาจะมีเนื้อหาเข้มข้นแต่ยังเป็นทักษะเดิมแต่เพิ่มเติมมากขึ้น เขียนตาม structure ที่ครูสอน ระดับมหาวิทยาลัยการเรียนการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษ ยังไม่ชัดเจน แต่มีโครงสร้างซับซ้อนมากขึ้น มีการเขียนเรียงความ เรื่องราวเกี่ยวกับตนเอง เขียนตามหัวข้อ ต้องการฝึกฝนให้มาก	In the primary level, I was taught simple vocabularies and simple sentences, not the complex ones. The method of teaching was to make sentences with the vocabularies grammatically while in the secondary level, the contents were more intensive, but the skills were as in the primary and more complicated. The writing was as the structure taught by the teachers. In the university, learning to write in English was not clear in terms of the methods, but there was more complex structure. There were also writing essays, writing biography and writing with the topics which needed more practice.	In the primary level, I was taught simple vocabularies and simple sentences, not the complex ones. The method of teaching was to make sentences with the vocabulary usage correct, while at the secondary level, the content was more intensive. The skills in the primary school curriculum were more complicated. The writing was as the structure taught by the teachers. In the university, learning to write in English was not clear in terms of the methods, but there was more complex structure. There were also writing essays, writing biography and writing with the topics, which needed more practice.	Lina's background
2.	ประสบการณ์ในการสอนการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษให้กับนักเรียนชั้นประถมศึกษานั้นได้ใช้ประสบการณ์จากที่เรียนมาในสมัยประถม มัธยมและมหาวิทยาลัยนำมาสอน โดยเริ่มจากประเทศไทย เน้นทักษะเรื่องของโครงสร้างภาษาไวยากรณ์ เป็นอันดับแรก ยังคงสอนคำศัพท์ โครงสร้าง รูปแบบประโยค ให้นักเรียนได้ฝึก และให้นักเรียนเขียนเพิ่มเติมจากตัวอย่าง	For the experiences in teaching writing in English to the primary students, the experiences from the primary, the secondary and the university were applied, starting from focusing on language structure and grammar. Furthermore, vocabularies, structure and forms of sentences were taught. The students also practiced writing and they wrote more from the examples.	For the experiences in teaching writing in English to the primary students, the experiences from the primary, the secondary and the university were applied, starting from focusing on language structure and grammar. Furthermore, vocabularies, structure and forms of sentences were taught. The students also practiced writing and they wrote more from the examples.	Lina's background
3.	ปัจจัยหลักในการสอนการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษ จุดแข็งคือทักษะของผู้เรียนคือความรู้ในเรื่องของคำศัพท์ และทักษะในการนำคำศัพท์ไปใช้ในการเขียนประโยค มีความรู้เรื่องโครงสร้างประโยคที่จะนำมาเขียน แต่จุดอ่อนก็คือ คำศัพท์ไม่แน่นพอ ไม่มั่นใจในการใช้ศัพท์มาแต่งประโยค	The strong point of teaching writing was the learners' skills in vocabularies and they were used in writing sentences. The learners also understood the structure of the sentences to be written. However, the weak point was they did not know the vocabularies clearly so they did not have any	The strong point of teaching writing was the learners' skills in vocabularies. The learners also understood the structure of the sentences to be written. However, the weak point was that they did not know meanings of vocabulary clearly so they did not have any confidence	Lina's background

	เขียน หรือสะกดคำศัพท์ผิด พื้นฐานวงคำศัพท์จะน้อยไป	confidence to apply the vocabularies to make sentences. They also misspelt the vocabularies and did not know the vocabularies as much as they had to.	to apply the vocabulary to make sentences. They also misspelt the vocabulary and did not know the vocabulary as much as they had to.	
4.	มีการอบรมจากศูนย์ ERIC ซึ่งตอนนี้เปลี่ยนชื่อเป็น PEERS ที่ลำปาง British council ซึ่งจัดอบรมจากสพฐ. แต่ไม่ใช่การอบรมการสอนการเขียน เพียงอย่างเดียวจะเป็นการอบรมแบบรวม ๆ เช่น phonetics and communicative English เน้นบทสนทนา English for daily life เพื่อเป็นการเตรียมความพร้อมผู้เรียนเข้าสู่ประชาคมอาเซียน การใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในชีวิตประจำวัน การทักทาย แนะนำตนเอง แนะนำสถานที่ เน้นการพูดเพื่อการสื่อสาร การเขียนจะเป็นเพียงเสี้ยวหนึ่งของการอบรมทุกครั้ง มีการอบรม CLT แต่การเขียนก็ยังคงเป็นเพียงทักษะที่มีการกล่าวถึงในช่วงท้าย ๆ	The teacher was trained by ERIC, which has been renamed as PEERS, in Lampang. She was also trained by British Council and the training was held by Office of the Basic Education Commission, but it was all skills training, not only writing, such as phonetics and communicative English focusing on English for daily life. It was held in order to prepare the learners for ASEAN Economic Committee: AEC. The training was also about English for everyday use, greeting, introduction, describing places emphasizing on communicative speaking, while English writing is a little part of the training. There were also some Communicative Language Teaching training, but the writing was just a skill mentioned in the last session.	I was trained by ERIC, which has been renamed as PEERS, in Lampang. I was also trained by British Council and the training was held by Office of the Basic Education Commission, but it was all skills training, not only writing, such as phonetics and communicative English focusing on English for daily life. It was held in order to prepare the learners for ASEAN Economic Committee: AEC. The training was also about English for everyday use, greeting, introduction, describing places emphasizing on communicative speaking, while English writing is a little part of the training. There were also Communicative Language Teaching training, but the writing was just a skill mentioned in the last session.	Lina's background
5.	หลักสูตรภาษาอังกฤษที่ใช้อยู่อิงหลักสูตรการศึกษาขั้นพื้นฐานปี 2551 ขั้นตอนการสอนเป็น 3Ps communicative approach แต่มีทฤษฎี อื่น ๆ ที่สามารถนำมาประยุกต์ใช้ในการสอน ไม่ใช่ student-centred approach ทั้งหมด เป็น teacher-centred กับ student-centred approach ร่วมกัน เพราะบางทีครูต้องนำทางให้กับเด็กนักเรียนบ้าง	The English curriculum used in the school was based on the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008) which the teaching process was 3Ps communicative approach and other theories applied for the teaching. It was not all the student-centred approach, but it was a combination of teacher-centred approach and student-centred approach because the teachers sometimes had to guide the learners.	The English curriculum used in the school was based on the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008) which the teaching process was 3Ps communicative approach and other theories applied for the teaching. It was not all the student-centred approach, but it was a combination of teacher-centred approach and student-centred approach because the teachers sometimes had to guide the learners.	Bio-power was demonstrated here because the curriculum was brought to practice or reproduce into the EFL classrooms by teacher Lina.
6.	หลักสูตรที่ใช้ในโรงเรียนนี้มีความเชื่อมโยงกับหลักสูตรสพฐ. หรือหลักสูตรแกนกลาง 70% : 30 % มีการวิเคราะห์หลักสูตรว่าอย่างไรจะ	The curriculum used in the school associated with the Office of the Basic Education Commission's curriculum or the Basic Education Core	The curriculum used in the school was associated with the Office of the Basic Education Commission's curriculum or the Basic	Bio-power was exhibited here by Lina since she followed the curriculum

	เหมาะกับบริบทของโรงเรียน บ้านชุมชน นักเรียน	Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008) with a proportion of 70:30. There was an analysis the suitability of its curriculum with the contexts of the school, the students' family and community.	Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008) with a proportion of 70:30. There was an analysis seeking suitability of its curriculum with the contexts of the school, the students' family and community.	policy, and applied it to her school context appropriately.
7.	วิธีการสอนการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษ นักเรียนชั้นประถมในปัจจุบันนี้ใช้วิธีการ ให้โครงสร้างเด็กก่อน เพื่อให้เด็กทำความเข้าใจ แล้วให้แตกไอเดียของนักเรียนเองจากโครงสร้างที่กำหนดให้ กระบวนการนำไปใช้ยังเป็นปัญหา เด็กต้องเข้าใจอย่างมาก ให้คำศัพท์ การสอนการเขียนในระดับประถมเป็นเรื่องที่ยาก	At the present the teaching writing in English approaches to the primary students was teaching the structure, firstly, in order that the students could understand clearly and they could apply with the given structure. However, there was a problem with their writing process because when they wrote English, it depended on their explicit understanding and their corpus, so the teaching writing in English to the primary students was quite difficult.	At the present, the teaching writing in English approaches to the primary students was teaching the structure in order that the students could understand clearly and could apply with the given structures. However, there was a problem with their writing process because when students wrote in English, they depended on their explicit understanding and their corpus. Thus, the teaching writing in English to the primary students was quite difficult.	Disciplinary power was exercised since Lina used techniques of surveillance and gaze when she observed her students' learning behaviour and examined their English learning development.
8.	ในหลักสูตรระบุไว้ว่าให้เน้นผู้เรียนเป็นศูนย์กลาง คุณครูได้นำมาใช้แต่ไม่ทั้งหมด ในกระบวนการสอนบางทีครูต้องเป็นไกด์ไลน์ให้เด็กแสวงหาความรู้เพิ่มเติมด้วยตนเอง แต่บางเรื่องครูจะคอยช่วยเหลือดูแล แนะนำ อธิบายสลับบทบาทกันไป เป็นทั้ง teacher-centred กับ student-centred approach ร่วมกัน	According to the curriculum, it was stated that the teachers should implement the student-centred approach. In fact, the teacher just could do some. In the teaching process, the teachers usually were counsellors and let the students to learn further by themselves. The teachers would support, supervise, give them some advices and explain, it was both the teacher-centred and the student-centred.	According to the curriculum, it was imperative that teachers implement a student-centred approach. In fact, the teacher just could do some. In the teaching process, I was a counsellor and I urged the students to learn further by themselves. I supported, supervised, and gave them some advice and explanation. It was both a teacher-centred and a student-centred.	Bio-power was exercised when Lina implemented the teaching approaches dictated in the curriculum. Also, pastoral power was exposed by Lina's guidance, control, and supervision in her writing classes.
9.	เคยลองให้เด็กเขียนจากการอ่านนิทานสั้น ๆ ค่อยเป็นค่อยไป เป็นแรงบันดาลใจให้นักเรียนได้ฝึกเขียน ใช้เวลาเยอะพอสมควร เวลาเรียนภาษาอังกฤษค่อนข้างน้อย 2 ชั่วโมงต่อสัปดาห์ ถ้าจะใช้แต่การเขียนนิทานเป็นการกระตุ้นการฝึกเขียนเพียงอย่างเดียวก็จะไม่ครบตามมาตรฐานตัวชี้วัด ดังนั้นจึงมีวิธีการใหม่อื่น ๆ อีกในการช่วยพัฒนาทักษะการเขียน	I had ever let the students write from short stories they read gradually. They were motivated to practice writing, but this strategy consumed much time. We had only 2 hours per week for the writing in English. Writing the short stories encouraged them only practicing writing which did not covered all the indicators, so there were other new strategies to develop their writing skill.	I let the students write from short stories they read gradually. They were motivated to practice writing, but this strategy consumed much time. I had only 2 hours per week for the English language classes. Writing short stories encouraged them to practise writing, which did not cover all the indicators, so there were other new strategies to develop their writing skills.	Disciplinary power was exhibited because Lina set the steps of writing tasks (normalisation). Lina also observed the students' progress in writing, so she knew who were better and who needed more assistance

				(hierarchical observation).
10.	รูปแบบทั่วไป ถ้าเป็นงานเดี่ยว นักเรียนที่เรียนเก่งสามารถทำได้ และให้ไปช่วยเพื่อน ๆ งานกลุ่ม ก็จะแบ่งคนเก่ง ๆ เป็นหัวหน้ากลุ่ม เพื่อคอยช่วยเหลือเพื่อนๆ ในกลุ่ม แต่ละคนมีบทบาทหน้าที่ของตนเอง และสุดท้ายให้มาสรุปเพื่อความเข้าใจตรงกัน มีเกม เพลง เน้นกระบวนการกลุ่มที่ช่วยกัน ทำให้การทำงานเร็วขึ้น	It was like a general class. For individual work, the students who were good at English could write English by themselves and they could help the others. For the group works, the teacher would assign the students who were good at English to be leader in order to support the others in the group. Each one had their own duty and finally, it was concluded to be their own group works. There were also games and songs, emphasizing on teamwork, so they can work together quickly.	It was like a general class. For individual work, the students who were good at English could write in English by themselves, and they could help the others. For group work, I assigned the students who were good at English to be a leader to assist the others. Each group member had his own duty. The students produced their own writing task, and then it was collated to be group work. There were also word games and songs, emphasising on teamwork, so the students work together quickly.	Disciplinary power was exercised here because Lina used hierarchical observation when she monitored her student learning behaviours and then ranked them by their ability in learning English. She used this fact to design activities for her classes. Pastoral power was also exhibited here because the teacher regulated the class activities to the students and used teaching strategies, such as word games to help them learn English vocabulary better.
11.	ไม่สามารถสอนเขียนได้ทุกคาบ หรือทดสอบการเขียนได้ทุกครั้ง มีบางบทเรียนที่สามารถทดสอบการเขียนได้ เช่น เขียนแนะนำตนเอง แต่นักเรียนชั้นประถมนั้นบางครั้ง อักษรภาษาอังกฤษยังเขียนไม่ถูก ตัวพิมพ์ใหญ่พิมพ์เล็กปนกัน จำได้ไม่หมด เพราะว่าเด็กไทยส่วนใหญ่ จะเริ่มเรียนจริงจังตอนป. 4 ซึ่งเป็นอีกปัญหา มี dictation บ้าง แต่ไม่ทุกคาบ มีใบงาน แบบฝึกหัด สมุด การทำกิจกรรมในห้องเรียน ครู จะสังเกตพัฒนาการของเด็กแต่ละคน	The students could not write and be tested every class. There were some lessons that the students could be tested, for example, writing to introduce themselves. The primary students sometimes wrote the English alphabets incorrectly. Due to Thai students learned English intensively, when they studied in grade 4, they also wrote with capital letters and small letters incorrectly and could not remember all letters. In some of the class, there were dictation, work sheets, work books, notebooks and activities, so that the teacher could observe each students' writing development.	There was not a written test in every English class. There were some lessons that the students were tested on their writing skills, for example, writing a short paragraph to introduce themselves. Some students wrote the English alphabets incorrectly because they started learning English intensively when they studied in grade 4. They also wrote with capital letters and small letters incorrectly and could not remember all English letters. I used dictation to test vocabulary spelling, worksheets, and workbooks, so I could observe each	Disciplinary power was exposed in the way that Lina examined her students' writing performance and directed the classes by a set of EFL writing activities.

			student's writing development.	
12.	กระบวนการเขียนแบบเน้นกระบวนการ มี ได้นำมาใช้ ได้เริ่มจากง่ายไปยาก คำ วลี ประโยค นำมาประโยคมาเรียงต่อกันเป็นเรื่องราว	The process-based approach was applied, starting from the fundamental level to advanced level (words, phrases, sentences), and composing the sentences to be a paragraph.	The process-based approach was applied, starting from the fundamental level to advanced level (words, phrases, sentences), and composing the sentences to be a paragraph.	Lina could only use pre-writing activities at the first stage of the process-based approach to writing. She seemed misunderstandin-g of this approach concept.
13.	การสอนการเขียนแบบเน้นผลงาน มี ได้นำมาใช้ ในแต่ละเรื่องที่เรียนมา ครอบครัว ตนเอง เรื่องใกล้ตัว มีให้เขียนการ์ด ข้อความสั้น ๆ ตามวันพิเศษต่าง ๆ เช่น วันแม่ วันขึ้นปีใหม่ วันวาเลนไทน์	The product-based approach was also applied, referring to what the students had been learned, their families, everything about themselves, their current situation, by writing in a card, short sentences following special events such as Mother's Day, New Year Day and Valentine's Day.	The product-based approach was also applied, referring to what the students had learned such as their families, themselves, their current situation. They wrote a short paragraph. The students wrote a card on special events, such as Mother's Day, New Year Day and Valentine's Day.	Lina applied the product-based approach in her pedagogy to teach her students to write a short paragraph. She gave them a couple of samples. The students copied and then wrote up a new paragraph using their own details.
14.	การสอนการเขียนแบบเน้นประเภทงานเขียน มี ได้นำมาใช้ มีหัวข้อให้นักเรียนเขียน ตนเอง ครอบครัว โรงเรียน ซึ่งบรรจุอยู่ในหลักสูตร อยู่แล้ว เช่น ป. 4 ต้องเขียนตามหัวข้อที่กำหนดให้ได้	The genre-based approach was applied. There were topics assigned the students to write. The topics were about themselves, their families and schools. This approach was assigned in the curriculum, for example, grade 4 students had to write following the specified topics.	The genre-based approach was applied. There were topics about themselves, their families and school, which were assigned to the students to wrie. It was stated in the curriculum that grade 4 students had to write following the specific topics of their interest.	Lina applied it from the curriculum policy to teach writing about interesting topic to the fourth grade students.
15.	ครูได้ใช้แผนการสอนภาษาเพื่อการสื่อสาร ฟัง พูด อ่าน เขียน ขึ้นอยู่กับแต่ละคาบ ว่าเน้นทักษะใด เช่น เน้น พูด เน้นเขียน 3Ps มีกิจกรรมเช่น ฟังเขียน อ่านเขียน	The communicative approach was applied, including listening, speaking, reading and writing. For some class, the teacher would like to emphasize on speaking and some was emphasized on writing. However, 3Ps activities were integrated such as listening-writing or reading-writing.	The communicative approach was applied, including listening, speaking, reading and writing. For some classes, I focused on speaking skills but for others I emphasised writing skills. However, 3Ps were mainly used in a lesson plan. I also used teaching strategies, such as listen to the story and write a short answer or read a short story and fill in the blanks.	Lina used teaching strategies and EFL activities to develop student communicative competence. Most training programme she attended was about CLT.
16.	ภาพรวมในการใช้ในห้องเรียน	For overall pedagogies applied in my classroom, it	For overall pedagogies applied in my classroom, I	It was obvious here that Lina

	เริ่มจากเกมเป็นการวอร์มอัพให้นัก -เรียนพร้อมที่จะเรียน กระตือรือร้น ที่จะเรียน หรือเพลง จากนั้นนำเข้าสู่ บทเรียนโดยเริ่มจากคำศัพท์ใหม่ ๆ ตัวอย่างนิทาน สั้น ๆ จากนั้นนำสู่การนำเสนอเนื้อหา โครงสร้างประโยค ฝึกคำ ฝึกประโยค บอกเล่าง่าย ๆ คำถาม คำตอบ ช่วงที่นักเรียนฝึกก็คือการทำงานจาก โครงสร้างประโยคที่ครูเสนอ ฝึกพูด ฝึกเขียน ฝึกจากใบงาน งานเดี่ยว งานกลุ่ม ครูคอยให้คำปรึกษา แนะนำ แล้วปิดท้ายด้วยการร้องเพลง เล่นเกม นักเรียนชอบทำกิจกรรมตลอดเวลาให้ เป็นห้องเรียนที่สนุกสนาน เสริมสร้างบรรยากาศการเรียนรู้	started from a games or a song to be a warm-up activity in order to prepare the students for the lessons. Then contents and sentence structure were presented. The students could practice their vocabularies, simple affirmative sentences, questioning and answering. The students practice with the sentence structure presented by the teacher. They practiced speaking and writing. They also practiced with work sheets, individual works and group works and the teacher would counsel and advice. Finally, they would sing and play games. The students preferred to do the activities in the class, hence it was a lively class and made a good learning environment.	occasionally started from games or songs at a warm-up stage to prepare the students for the lessons. Then contents and sentence structures were presented. The students practised new vocabularies, simple affirmative, questions and answers sentences. The students practised sentence structures, speaking, and writing. They also worked on worksheets individually or group work. I advised and assisted them if they needed help. The students preferred to do the activities in the class; hence it was a lively class and a good learning environment.	used activities, strategies, and materials to teach her students, following the whole language approach. She focused on student-centre teaching. Surveillance was exercised when she observed her students' behaviour and encouraged them to learn enthusiastically. Pastoral power was also exhibited when student-centred approach enables a teacher to be a facilitator.
17.	คิดว่าวิธีการสอนในปัจจุบันทำให้ นักเรียนมีพัฒนาการการเขียนที่ดีขึ้น ฝึกจากคำ รู้จากคำมากขึ้น รูปแบบประโยคซ้ำ ๆ ทำให้เด็กเข้าใจ จำได้และเขียนได้ด้วยตนเอง เน้นทบทวน ให้ตัวอย่างมาก ๆบ่อย ๆ ส่วนใหญ่เด็กพัฒนาการการเขียนดีขึ้น เขียนให้แตกต่างออกไป ใช้ mind mapping ประโยคถามตอบบ้างทำให้เขียนดีขึ้น	I think the current pedagogies could help the students improve their writing skills because they could practice the vocabularies and could learn more vocabularies. With repeated using of the sentence structure, they could understand, remember and write the sentences by themselves. The teacher usually review and gave them many examples, so most of them could improve their writing. They could write in different patterns, apply mind mapping and write questioning and answering sentences.	I thought the current pedagogies could help the students to improve their writing skills because they practised and learned more vocabulary. They understood, remembered and wrote the sentences by themselves after practising writing the same sentence structures repeatedly. I often reviewed and gave them several examples, so most of the students improved their writing skills. They wrote in different patterns, applied a mind mapping and wrote question and answer sentences correctly.	Several writing activities were applied in Lina's classes, but the process-based writing was not completed (see Chapter Two, p. 54).
18.	การเขียนตามโครงสร้างที่คุณครูให้ เด็กเข้าใจ สามารถเปลี่ยนคำ ในโครงสร้างเป็นคำอื่นๆ ได้ตามความเข้าใจ โดยมาจากการฝึก ซ้ำ ๆบ่อย ๆ มีตัวอย่างให้นักเรียนได้ฝึกฝนตาม โครงสร้าง อย่างต่อเนื่อง	Writing with the structure given by the teacher. The students could understand and use the words in the structure with other words instead . This was because of their repeated and usually practicing, giving their examples in order to practice	I taught them sentence structures and gave them examples of sentences, so the students understood and used the words to write new sentences correctly. I had the students to practise writing continually with examples given to them as a	Lina used drilling and modelling of words and writing in her classes, this was a practice of the whole language approach.

		following the structure continually.	model of writing.	

Interview transcripts: Sopin

Q no.	The original transcription in Thai language	Translation by the researcher and a translator	Transcription edited by the supervisory team and an accredited editor	Coding
1.	เริ่มจากคำศัพท์พื้นฐานง่าย ๆ เริ่ม ป. 5 แล้วใช้หนังสือ English is fun แล้วเป็นประโยคง่าย ๆ ระดับมัธยมเพิ่มความยากขึ้นมาอีก เริ่มเรียนรู้เรื่องโครงสร้างประโยค ได้เรียนรู้วิธีการเขียนมากขึ้น ซับซ้อนขึ้น เริ่มเขียนเนื้อเรื่องง่าย ๆ แล้วค่อยยากขึ้น ระดับมหาวิทยาลัยการสอนเขียนไม่มีชาวต่างชาติสอน มีการสอนเขียนเรียงความ บรรยาย เล่าเรื่อง จดหมาย สมัครงาน มีให้เขียนตามหัวข้อ เขียนตามแบบฟอร์ม โครงสร้าง	I was taught with fundamental vocabularies, starting from grade 5 with "English is Fun" book. The next one was developed to simple sentences. In a secondary school, it was more intensive. I learnt sentence structure, how to write in English with more complicated structure. I also began to write simple passage and then write with more complex structure, while in a university, there were not any foreign lecturers teaching writing in English. I was taught to write essays, descriptive, narrative, letters of application, writing with given topics, writing with forms and structure.	I was taught with fundamental vocabulary, starting from grade 5 with "English is Fun" book, and then simple sentences. At secondary school level, learning English was more intensive; I learned to write in more complicated structure and began to write a simple passage. At a university level, there were not any foreign lecturers teaching writing, so I was taught to write essays, descriptive, narrative, letters of application, writing with given topics by Thai teacher of English.	Sopin's background
2.	ประสบการณ์ในการสอนเขียนชั้นประถม ศึกษาได้ 6 ปี ได้นำความรู้ที่ได้เรียนมานำมาสอนเด็ก เช่น เริ่มคำศัพท์เกี่ยวกับชีวิตประจำวัน ให้นักเรียนเขียนประโยค เนื้อเรื่องเป็นความเรียงเพิ่มความยากขึ้น มีประโยคความรวม	For 6 year experience of teaching writing in English in the primary, my previous knowledge was applied to teach the students, for examples, vocabularies about daily life were taught, the students were taught to write sentences and passages to be essays with more complex sentences.	For 6-year experience of teaching writing in English in the primary school, my previous knowledge was applied to teach the students, for example, vocabulary about daily life. The students were taught to write sentences and passages with more complex structures.	Sopin's background
3.	ปัจจัยหลักในการเรียนการเขียนภาษา อังกฤษมีจุดแข็ง ให้นักเรียนได้เรียน โครงสร้างไวยากรณ์ที่ชัดเจนในการสอน เด็ก ให้นักเรียนได้ฝึกเขียนจาก โครงสร้างมาก ๆ จุดอ่อนในการสอนของตนเองคือเรื่อง ของ production การนำไปใช้ นักเรียนยังไม่สามารถนำไปใช้ได้ถูกทั้ง หมด ถูกบ้างผิดบ้าง ครูต้องคอยช่วยนำให้ นักเรียนยังเขียนเองไม่ได้ทั้งหมด	There was a strong point for the significant factor. The students had learnt distinct grammatical structure. The students also could practice writing with various structure. However, weak points of my teaching were production, application and incorrect usage of the students, so the teacher had to guide them because they could not write it all by themselves.	There was a strong point for the significant factor. The students learned a distinct grammatical structure. The students also practise writing with different structures. However, weak points of my teaching were production and application of the students' English knowledge, so I had to guide them because they could not write it all by themselves.	Sopin's background
4.	การอบรมเฉพาะการเขียนไม่มี แต่ได้รับการอบรมการเขียนแผน	There was not a particular writing in English training. I had been trained writing	There was not a particular English writing training. I was trained in writing a	Sopin's background

	เทคนิควิธีการสอน จากศูนย์Peers และจากสำนักงานเขต โดยในปัจจุบันเน้น CLT มากกว่าเน้นภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อการสื่อสาร มีจากสำนักพิมพ์ Mac และจากสพฐ.	teaching plan, teaching techniques by Peers centre and the Education Service Area Office. At the present, the training was focused on CLT rather than communicative English. The trainers were from Mac Publishing and the Education Service Area Office.	lesson plan, teaching techniques by PEERS centre and the Education Service Area Office. At present, the training focused on CLT. The trainers were from Mac Publishing and the Education Service Area Office.	
5.	หลักสูตรภาษาอังกฤษที่ใช้ในโรงเรียนปัจจุบันปี 2551 หลักสูตรแกนกลางเน้นภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อการสื่อสาร วัฒนธรรม เทคโนโลยี ฯลฯ โรงเรียนได้นำมาใช้ จากนั้นครูนำมาสร้างแผนการสอนให้สอดคล้องกับตัวชี้วัดในหลักสูตรเป็นหลักต้องสอดคล้อง ต้องตรง	The English curriculum used in the school, based on the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008), was focused on communicative English, culture, technology and etc. The school applied it and the teacher then created teaching plans relating to indicators in the core curriculum correctly.	The English curriculum used in the school was based on the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008), which focused on communicative English, culture, technology and etc. The school applied it and I then created teaching plans relating to indicators in the core curriculum correctly.	Bio-power was exercised because Sopin was subjected to implementations of the curriculum policy. She planned her lessons following the curriculum benchmarks.
6.	มีการปรับปรุงหลักสูตรให้เข้ากับบริบทของนักเรียนและสถานศึกษา ครูมาปรับใช้แต่ยังเชื่อมโยงกับหลักสูตรแกนกลาง	The curriculum used was improved to be associated with the students' and the schools' contexts as well as the core curriculum.	The 2551 Basic Curriculum and English Curriculum were adopted to use more suitably and appropriately to the school contexts.	Bio-power was exercised by Sopin since she adopted the national curriculum to her school context appropriately.
7.	คำศัพท์ ให้ฟังแล้วเขียน อ่านแล้วเขียน มีปัญหาด้านการอ่านออกเสียงสำเนียงภาษา มีฟังจากซีดี เทปบ้าง มีdictation บ้าง แต่ไม่ประสบผลสำเร็จ นักเรียนยังเขียนสะกดคำศัพท์ไม่ถูกต้อง วิธีสอนที่ใช้ไปยังไม่ได้ผลเท่าที่ควร	According to vocabularies, the students had learnt by listening, from CD and tape cassettes, and writing, reading and writing and dictation. However, there were problems with their pronunciation and accent. They also misspelt the vocabularies and the teaching approaches applied were not effective as expected.	The students learned new English vocabulary by listening, from CDs and they were also exposed to new words from reading, writing and dictation. However, problems were their pronunciation and they also misspelt the vocabulary. I thought the applied teaching pedagogies were not efficient as I had expected.	Sopin used techniques of surveillance and gaze to gain knowledge of her students' behaviour. Normalising judgement was applied when she evaluated some students did not follow her teaching procedure. Surveillance and normalising judgement are exercise of disciplinary power.
8.	ได้ใช้ student-centred approach มีการบูรณาการความรู้ เช่นศัพท์เรื่องการแต่งกาย นักเรียนรู้ศัพท์แล้วนำไปบรรยายให้	The student-centred approach was implemented and other knowledge was integrated, such as vocabularies on dressings and then the	A student-centred approach was implemented and other knowledge was integrated, such as words about apparels and seasons. The	Bio-power was exhibited when Sopin implemented a student-centred

	เหมาะสมกับการแต่งกายให้เหมาะสม เป็นการบูรณาการเข้ากับสุขศึกษา ศิลปศึกษา จากการวาดภาพประกอบ	students applied this in order to describe how to dress appropriately. There were also integration English vocabularies with health science and art, like drawing illustration.	students applied knowledge of weather to describe how to dress appropriately in each season. There were also integration English language with health science and arts, such as drawing a picture of your favourite season and describing it in English.	approach, which was dictated in the curriculum. Pastoral power was evident in the students' reproduction of Sopin's teaching.
9.	ได้ลองใช้วิธีการใหม่ ๆ ในการสอนการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษบ้าง เช่นฟังแล้วเติมศัพท์ในช่องว่าง ให้เด็กอ่านแล้วมาดัดแปลงเขียนเป็นเรื่องของตนเอง ได้หัดเขียนตามหัวข้อ เขียนประโยคบรรยายง่าย ๆ เนื้อหาไม่ซับซ้อน ประมาณ 10 ประโยค แรงบันดาลใจที่ลองวิธีการใหม่ ๆ คือ เพราะเด็กสะกดผิดบ่อย	I had ever introduced new teaching writing English to the class, for example listening and filling vocabularies in gaps, reading and writing the students' own stories, writing following given topics with about 10 simple descriptive sentences. Their misspelling influenced me to apply the new teaching pedagogy.	I introduced new teaching writing activities to my classes, for example listening and filling words in the gaps, reading and writing your own stories, and writing about given topics for ten sentences. The students' misspelling influenced me to apply the new teaching pedagogy or strategies.	Disciplinary power was exercised because Sopin controlled the writing class by setting up the order of activities (normalisation). Sopin observed the students had problems with writing (gaze).
10.	บรรยากาศในห้องเรียนเป็นการทำงานเดี่ยว บางครั้งสอนไปนักเรียนไม่ตอบ ไม่มีฟีดแบคกลับมา บางครั้ง เป็น teacher-centred ไม่เป็น student-centred ตลอด ครูต้องคอยให้ความช่วยเหลือ คำแนะนำ ให้นักเรียนคอยแก้ไข	In the classroom, they were assigned to complete individual works. Sometimes, the students did not answer my question and did not have any feedbacks. It was sometimes like teacher-centred, not always student-centred. The teacher would counsel, advice and comment their works in order that they could correct their works.	In the classroom, they were assigned to complete individual work. The students sometimes did not answer my questions nor had any responses. It was a teacher-centred rather than a student-centred classroom. I advised and made comments to their writing work in order that they could learn from the mistakes and could correct their own work.	Disciplinary power was exposed in her writing classes because Sopin monitored her student learning behaviours. Pastoral power was exhibited because Sopin assisted and guided the students in doing writing tasks.
11.	ดูที่ชิ้นงาน ผลงานการเขียนของเด็ก ก็จะทราบว่าเด็กมีพัฒนาการด้านการเขียนหรือไม่อย่างไร เก็บคะแนนหรือทดสอบการเขียนนั้น ไม่ทุกคาบ แต่ดูจากชิ้นงานการเขียน เช่น mind map จะดูคำศัพท์ว่าสะกดถูกหรือไม่ การออกสอบจะเป็น multiple choice บ้าง true or false มีการเขียนบรรยายรูปภาพ	It could be identify from their works and their writing performance. I could learn that whether they were developed in English writing skills or not. The students were not tested in every class. I would give them marks with their writing works, such as writing mind map and spelling vocabularies correctly. The tests were multiple choices, true or false and writing to describe pictures.	It could be identified from their work and their writing performance. I knew whether the students developed in English writing skills or not. The students were not tested in every class. I gave them marks to their writing work, such as writing a mind map and spelling vocabulary correctly. The tests were in multiple choices form, true or false and writing to describe pictures for example.	Disciplinary power was exercised since Sopin saw her students' writing performance and recorded this information. Punishment in terms of reward power was also exhibited when she marked high score to students' work,

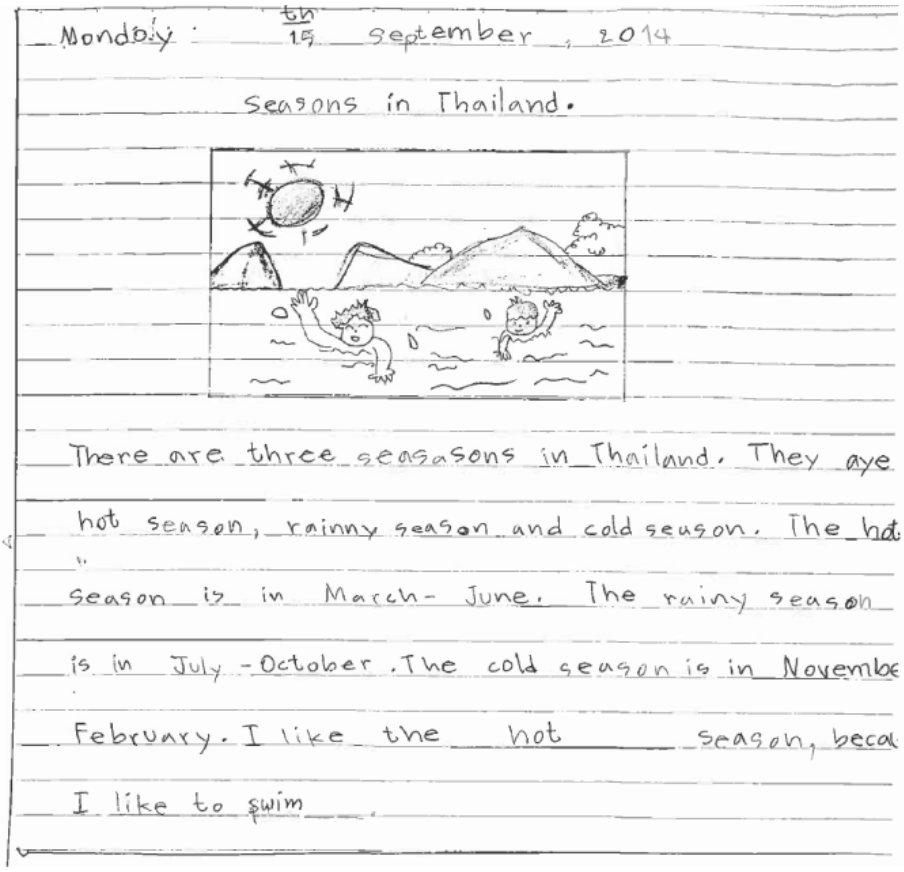
				whereas low score, marked to some students' work could be interpreted as coercive punishment.
12.	เคยใช้ ถือเป็นส่วนสำคัญ ในการเรียนการสอนทำให้นักเรียนเข้าใจ	Yes, I did. It was also a key part of teaching and learning in order that the students could understand distinctly.	Yes, I did. It was also a key part of teaching and learning in order that the students understood how to write distinctly.	Sopin mentioned that she used this pedagogy but not often. It seemed to me that she did not use every step in a process-based writing since she did not give sufficient details.
13.	ยังไม่ชัดเจน ยังไม่เคยใช้	No, not yet.	No, not yet.	Sopin did not use a product based approach to writing.
14.	มีเขียนจดหมาย ครอบครัว การ์ดวันสำคัญต่าง ๆ ได้เคยใช้วิธีนี้ในการจัดการเรียนการสอน	Yes, I did. I had ever applied this approach to teach writing. There were writing letters, writing about their families and writing cards in many occasions.	Yes, I did. I applied this approach to teach writing. There were writing letters, writing about their families and writing cards on different occasions.	Sopin applied activities in a genre-based approach to teach her students to write about social events.
15.	วิธีการสอนภาษาเพื่อการสื่อสาร อ่าน ฟังบทสนทนา แล้วนำมาเขียน ตอบคำถามได้ มี ได้ใช้	Yes, I did. I taught the students to read and listen to dialogues and then answered given questions with the communicative approach.	Yes, I did. I taught the students to read and listen to dialogues and then the students answered the questions. I used activities, focusing on the communicative approach.	EFL activities based on communicative language teaching (CLT) were applied in Sopin's classes.
16.	ได้ใช้ทั้ง 3 วิธีรวมกัน แล้วแต่ อ่านบทสนทนาแล้วตอบคำถาม แล้วให้นักเรียนสร้างบทสนทนาเอง จึงมี student-centred approach อยู่ แต่ทั้งนี้ คิดว่าเป็น แบบรวม ๆ กัน คือ teacher-centred กับ student-centred approach ร่วมกัน	All 3 approaches were applied in the class, for example, reading dialogues, then answering questions, after that they created their own dialogues. There were also student-centred and teacher-centred approaches.	All 3 approaches were applied in the class, for example, reading dialogues and answering questions, and creating their own dialogues. Also a student-centred and a teacher centred approaches were adopted in my classes.	Sopin implemented both student-centred and teacher-centred approach to organise her writing classes.
17.	คิดว่าหลังจากสอนแล้ว ทักษะการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียน ดีขึ้น มีการพัฒนาการเขียนขึ้น เช่นมีความแม่นยำเรื่อง ตัวเชื่อมประโยค เมื่อนักเรียนได้ฝึกซ้ำๆบ่อย ๆ	In my opinion, after applied these pedagogies, the students' English writing skills had been improved, for example, their accuracy in conjunction. The more they practiced writing, the more their writing skills were	In my opinion, after applying these pedagogies, the students' English writing skills were improved, for example, their accuracy use of conjunctions. The more	Sopin observed that the students developed their writing skills. She emphasised drilling and practising

	แล้วนักเรียนพัฒนาการเขียนขึ้น	improved.	they practised writing, the better their writing skills were.	writing to the students.
18.	ให้ศัพท์ แล้วให้เด็กเลือกมาเติมในช่องว่าง เขียนเกี่ยวกับตนเอง ครอบครัว โรงเรียน ฝึกนักเรียนให้นำศัพท์มาเขียนเนื้อเรื่อง เป็นวิธีที่ใช้บ่อยที่สุด ให้นักเรียนแต่งประโยคเอง อ่านเนื้อเรื่อง แล้วมาเขียนประโยคเพื่อตอบคำถาม เนื้อหาไม่ซับซ้อนมากนัก ศัพท์ เนื้อหาเข้าใจง่าย เหมาะสมกับระดับความรู้ของเด็ก สอดคล้องกับหลักสูตรและบริบทของโรงเรียน	I would give them some vocabularies and the students chose them to fill in gaps. The students also wrote their bibliography, wrote about their families and the schools. They could practice writing passages. This approach was usually applied. Furthermore, the students wrote their own sentences, read passages and wrote sentences in order to answer questions. These passages were not complicated. The vocabularies and contents were easy to understand, appropriate for their knowledge and related to the school's curriculum and context.	A vocabulary introduced in my class, such as the students chose words to fill in the gaps. The students also wrote their biography, wrote about their families and their school. They practised writing passages. This approach was usually applied. Furthermore, the students read passages and wrote the answers. These passages were not complicated. The vocabulary and contents were easy to understand, much appropriate for their knowledge and related to the school context.	Sopin mentioned vocabulary learning, writing activities, reading and writing activities, which are based the whole language, were adopted to teach English in her classes.

Note

Q no. = Question number

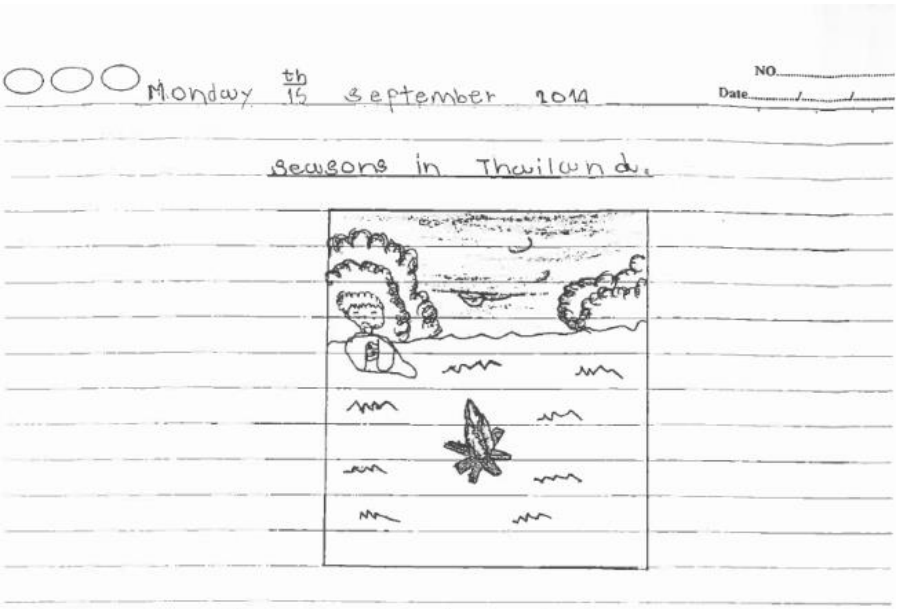
Appendix C:
Students' Writing Samples



Monday : th 15 September , 2014

Seasons in Thailand.

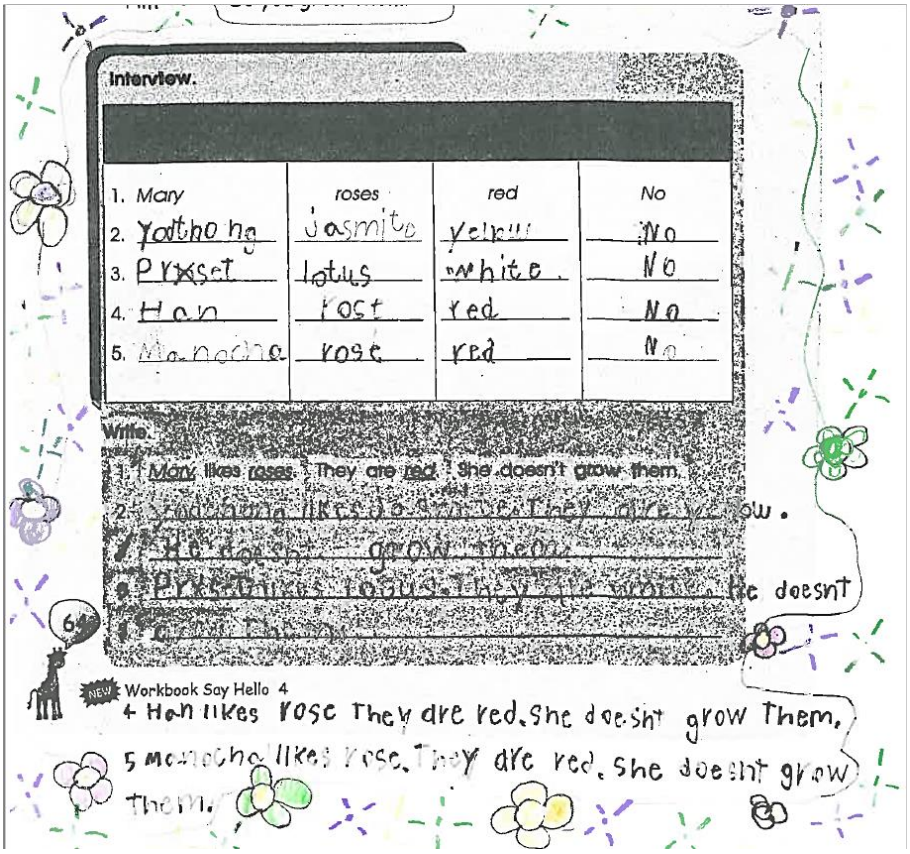
There are three seasasons in Thailand. They aye hot season, rainny season and cold season. The hot season is in March- June. The rainy season is in July -October .The cold season is in Novembe February. I like the hot season, beca I like to swim .



Monday th 15 September 2014 NO. Date / /

Seasons in Thailand.

There are three seasons in Thailand. They are hot season, rainny season and cold season. The hot season is in March-June. The rainy season is in July -October. The cold season is in November February. I like the cold season, because I want to show my new sweater.



Interview.

	roses	red	No
1. Mary			
2. Yaotho ng	Jasmito	yellow	No
3. Pr xxset	lotus	white	No
4. Han	rost	red	No
5. Monocha	rose	red	No

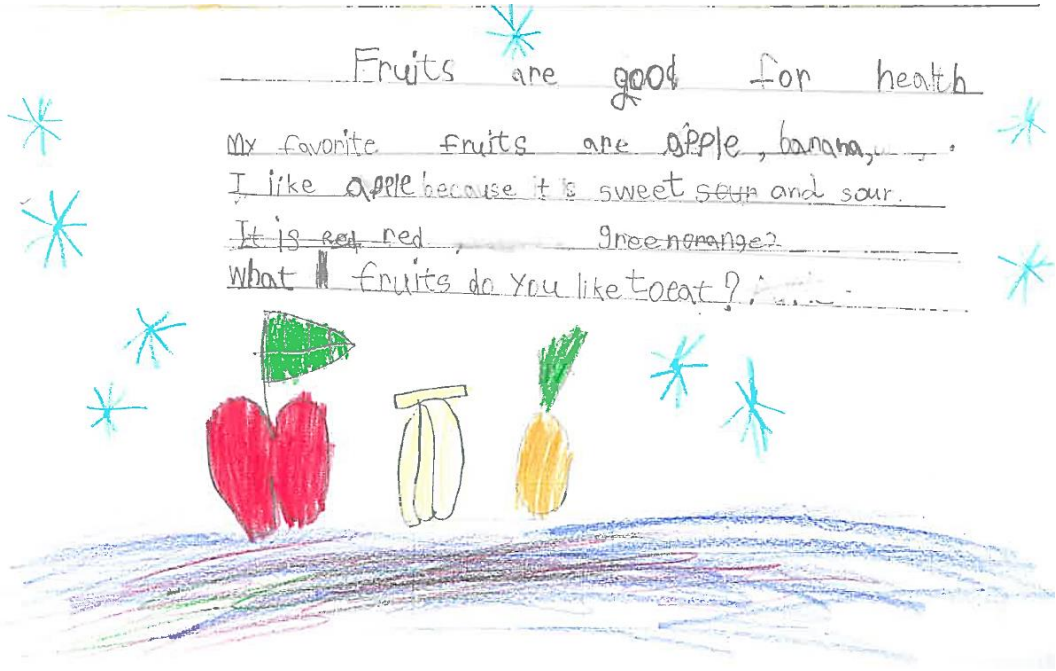
Write.

1. Mary likes roses. They are red. She doesn't grow them.
2. [illegible]
3. He doesn't grow them.
4. Pr[illegible] lotus. They [illegible] He doesn't
5. [illegible]

NEW Workbook Say Hello 4

4 Han likes rose They dre red. She doesnt grow them.

5 Monocha likes rose. They dre red. She doesnt grow them.



Fruits are good for health

My favorite fruits are apple, banana, .

I like apple because it is sweet sour and sour.

It is red red , Greenorange?

What fruits do You like to eat?

Appendix D:
Video Excerpt Transcripts

	Video clips
Excerpt 1	S4.1 : (writing)…what's next?...quick! S4.2 : umm…she doesn't clean her room. (look at a picture and choose 'doesn't' + 'clean' to form a correct sentence. The rest in group are doing other sentences.) S4.1 : C-L-E-A-N? (Keep writing) S4.2 : Yeah.
Excerpt 2	S5.1 : You know what it is. S5.2 : Gloves. Easy! S5.3 : No. it's a kind of gloves. Let's ask the teacher. S5.1 : Excuse me, Teacher B. What's this? (All of them waited for teacher's answer.)
Excerpt 3	S5.1 : What can I help? S5.2 : …(keep silent and pay attention to what she's writing)… S5.1 : (turn to another girl) What do you want me to do? S5.3 : OK. Let me finish drawing and you write the vocabularies. S5.1 : (Nodded) Fine. I'll get a dictionary.
Excerpt 4	S5.1 : It's incorrect, here. (pointing) S5.2 : Where? Why's it not correct? S5.3 : I know! It's happier than.. it's –ier, not –yer S5.1 : umm. Ok. (Erased and corrected the sentence.) They kept doing the assignment, which is writing sentences to describe the pictures.
Excerpt 5	S6.1 : Who's presenting in front of the class? (Smiling) S6.2 : we need to hurry up. S6.3 : Not me. I'm writing sentences. (Kept writing) S6.1 : I'm drawing. So it must be you S5.2. You're good at speaking. S6.2 : (Sigh) OK. Let me practice for a few minutes.
Excerpt 6	S4.1 : All done!(put a pencil down and smile at friends) S4.2 : Let's swap and check. S4.3 : (stand watching but do nothing) S4.1 : Turn to ask S4.3. Can you do that? It's easy, just 5 sentences. And hurry up, you'll need to finish it in 5 minutes.
Excerpt 7	S6.1 : I'm writing only 3 sentences. (finish and wait for other friends to complete the assignment) S6.2 : S6.1, Do we have to write 3 sentences each? S6.1 : Yes, of course. We have made a deal. Choose 3 adjectives to make sentences. S6.2 : But…I need help. I'm not sure about the grammar. Who checks the grammar?

Excerpt 8	TA : (Sit down and say). Now it's time for evaluation. Anyone who has questions, please ask me later. Are you ready S4.1? S4.1 : Yes, Teacher A. TA : Good. What color do you like? (Keep asking 5 questions about personal details. These questions are from the worksheet which students write about themselves.) S4.1 : I like blue and pink because they're beautiful colors.
Excerpt 9	S4.1: Could you stop for a second? (point at the blackboard) Does that mean 'delicious'? S4.2 : Yes. (then turn to continue writing) S4.1 : When we finish this part, what are we going to do next? S4.3 : Look at the steps on the blackboard. Teacher A wrote it there. (looks annoyed)
Excerpt 10	TB : Do you have questions? What topic do you get, Group? (students 're silent, so TB asked the same question in Thai.) S6.1 : 'Healthy Food'. S6.2 : (Look at the pictures) What does it mean, Teacher B? TB : OK. Before you write, you'll show your opinions. Look at these pictures and give me the names of these foods. Then sort them to 'Good' and 'Bad' foods. S6.3 : Teacher B, Healthy food is good food? TB : Yes, you're right. Good!

Abbreviation

(TA = Teacher Lina, TB = Teacher Sopin, S4.1 = Student 1 in Grade 4, S4.2 = Student 2 in Grade 4, S5.1 = Student 1 in Grade 5, S5.2 = Student 2 in Grade 5, S6.1 = Student 1 in Grade 6, S6.2 = Student 2 in Grade 6)

Appendix E:
University Ethics Approval Certificate

University Human Research Ethics Committee

HUMAN ETHICS APPROVAL CERTIFICATE

NHMRC Registered Committee Number EC00171

Date of Issue: 1/8/14 (supersedes all previously issued certificates)

Dear Dr Kathy Mills

This Approval Certificate serves as your written notice that the proposal has met the requirements of the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* and has been approved on that basis. You are therefore authorised to commence activities as outlined in your proposal application, subject to any specific and standard conditions detailed in this document.

Project Details

Category of Approval:	Human Negligible-Low Risk		
Approved From:	28/07/2014	**Approved Until:**	28/07/2016 (subject to annual reports)
Approval Number:	1400000492		
Project Title:	Pedagogies and social relations of EFL writing in Thailand: A critical ethnography		

Investigator Details

Chief Investigator: Dr Kathy Mills

Other Staff/Students:

Investigator Name	Type	Role
Dr Radha Iyer	Internal	QUT Associate Supervisor
Miss Kuanhathai Kuadnok	Student	Doctoral (Research)

Conditions of Approval

Specific Conditions of Approval:
No special conditions placed on approval by the UHREC. Standard conditions apply.

Standard Conditions of Approval:
The University's standard conditions of approval require the research team to:

1. Conduct the project in accordance with University policy, NHMRC / AVCC guidelines and regulations, and the provisions of any relevant State / Territory or Commonwealth regulations or legislation;

2. Respond to the requests and instructions of the University Human Research Ethics Committee (UHREC);

3. Advise the Research Ethics Coordinator immediately if any complaints are made, or expressions of concern are raised, in relation to the project;

4. Suspend or modify the project if the risks to participants are found to be disproportionate to the benefits, and immediately advise the Research Ethics Coordinator of this action;

5. Stop any involvement of any participant if continuation of the research may be harmful to that person, and immediately advise the Research Ethics Coordinator of this action;

6. Advise the Research Ethics Coordinator of any unforeseen development or events that might affect the continued ethical acceptability of the project;

7. Report on the progress of the approved project at least annually, or at intervals determined by the Committee;

8. (Where the research is publicly or privately funded) publish the results of the project is such a way to permit scrutiny and contribute to public knowledge; and

9. Ensure that the results of the research are made available to the participants.

Modifying your Ethical Clearance: